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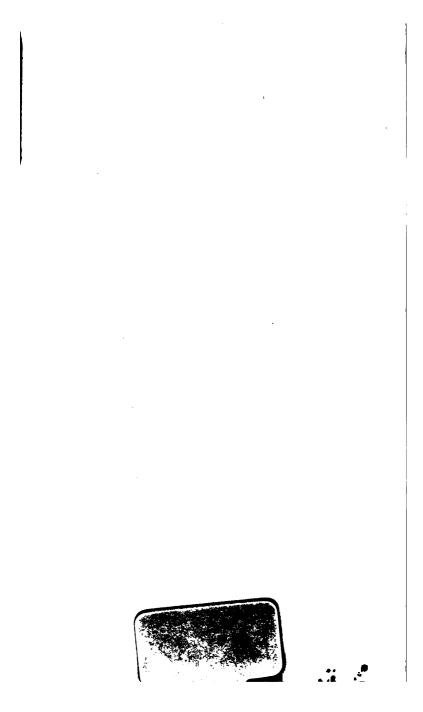
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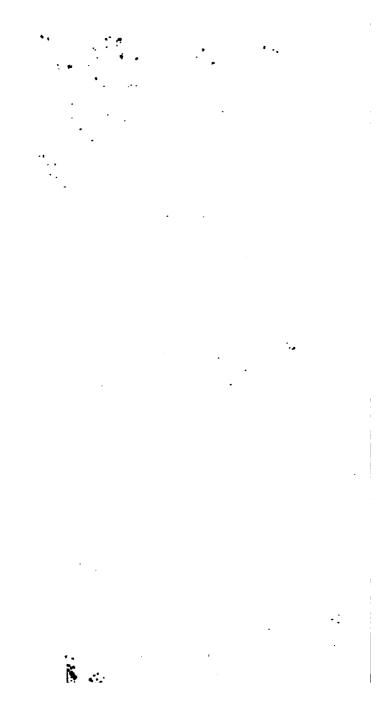
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A COMPENDIUM

OF

EUROPEAN GEOGRAPHY & HISTORY.

In the press, and intended to be ready in October next:

A COMPENDIUM of ASIATIC, AFRICAN, AMERICAN, and AUSTRALIAN GEOGRAPHY, with Historical Notices of the Principal Countries, forming a Sequel to Hiley's 'Compendium of European Geography and History.' 12mo.

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OF

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CONTAINING

A DESCRIPTION OF EVERY COUNTRY IN EUROPE;

PHYSICAL, POLITICAL, INDUSTRIAL, SOCIAL, & HISTORICAL

For the Middle and Upper Classes in Schools and Students preparing for Competitive Examinations.

BY

RICHARD HILEY,

AUTHOR OF AN 'ENGLISH GRAMMAR,' 'ENGLISH COMPOSITION,' ETC.

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1879

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CAMBRIDGE GARDENS, RICHMOND HILL, SURREY,

NOW ENGAGED IN TUITION,

MY OWN OCCUPATION FOR FORTY YEARS,

This Work und its Sequel ure Bediented

BY

THEIR AFFECTIONATE FATHER,

RICHARD HILEY.

DONCASTER: July 29, 1872.

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PREFACE.

THE OBJECT of the present work has been to comprise in one handy volume—1. A practical and sufficiently ample Geographical Description of every Country in Europe;—2. A clear and connected Summary of the most important events which have occurred in the History of each country; and—3. Brief but adequate notices of those traits of character for which the individuals who have been mainly instrumental in effecting great political changes have been remarkable. To assist the memory in acquiring and readily recalling the necessarily numerous facts herein mentioned, one uniform mode of construction and sequence has been observed in describing each country.

To each country has been allotted that extent of space which its importance and general influence seemed to require. the British Isles, accordingly, a large space has been assigned, not only in stating the most important events in our History, and describing our national institutions, industrial occupations, and social condition, but also in noticing the physical features of each county, with the peculiar occupations and political privileges of its inhabitants. Next to the British Isles, France has claimed especial notice, as its influence during the last century has been most extensively felt by every nation in Europe. I have deemed it, therefore, proper to furnish the student with a clear explanation of those political and social principles which, originating in this country, were extensively and perniciously disseminated at the close of the last and commencement of the present century. Next to France, the Germanic Empire, Austria, Prussia, Russia, Italy, and Spain.

have received considerable attention, as the study of their institutions and political and religious struggles will supply many interesting lessons. The other European countries have been described within narrower limits, according to the plan stated above.

To secure accuracy in the details, great care and patient research have been exercised throughout, in consulting the best and most esteemed authorities. By the steady use of this work as a text-book, the student will be spared a great amount of unnecessary labour and perplexity, as well as of expense, in consulting numerous treatises of which many are not easily accessible. As a text-book, too, for the middle and upper classes in schools, the work will form a sound and ample basis on which may be subsequently erected any superstructure which the inclination of the student may require.

DONCASTER:

July 20th, 1872.

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A COMPENDIUM

EUROPEAN GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

PROMUNCIATION OF FOREIGN GROGRAPHICAL WORDS.

To be read when the pupil has a little advanced.

- 1. The GENERAL RULE for the Pronunciation of Geographical Names should be that which is observed by the well-educated people of the respective countries to which they belong. But, as an adherence to this mode, were it even possible in all cases, would to many appear affectation, an approximation is all that can be recommended. Attention to the following observations on the appropriate pronunciation of Vowels, Diphthongs, and Consonants, will aid in accomplishing this.
- 2. The names of well-known foreign Places are pronounced as English words; as, in Paris, Calais, Lyons, Turin, Naples, &c.
- 3. Foreign words containing letters of difficult pronunciation are generally pronounced as in English.
- 4. It may be here observed that many foreign words are sometimes differently spelled, according as the writers attribute to the letters which they employ a French, German, or English sound. Thus, we sometimes see Tahtari for Tartary; Cabool for Cabul; Leipzig or Leipsig, for Leipsic. The old and established form of spelling ought to be employed.

5. PRONUNCIATION OF THE VOWELS.

A is usually sounded as d, in får, fåther; or å short, as in fåt.

E is generally sounded as ā in måte; or as å short in mět; in French, e final is generally silent; as in Basse-terre, båss-terr.

I is frequently sounded as long å, as in machine; but sometimes short, as in

O is generally sounded as in no, not, nor. U in French words sounds like \$\(\text{like}\) bong, as in \$\(\text{sub}\); or \$\vec{v}\$ short, as in \$\text{bit}\$. In other languages \$\vec{v}\$ is sounded like on so in \$\text{foot.}\$.

I's generally sounded like \$\vec{v}\$. In Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian, it sounds

like the French u.

6. DIPHTHONGS.

A is generally sounded as long ē, as in Agazan, or as a in fate.

At and ay are generally sounded as long i in fine; but in French like a !. fate or ay in may.

Au is generally sounded as our ou in sour; but, in French, su and sux sound

like long δ . Ei and e_F in German are sounded like i long; as, in Leipsic; but in French like ā in māte.

Eu in French is generally sounded as long & in sears; but sometimes as short š in *f*šr.

Ie is pronounced as long ē, as in Tangiër.

Oi is sounded as wa in war; or as ai in fair. Ou is generally sounded as oo; as in Toulouse.

Ua is sounded as wa; as in Guatemals.

7. CONSONANTS.

C before e and i in Italian is sounded like ch in chill; in German like s or t_k

Ch in French words is sounded like sh; as in Cherbourg.

Ch in German and other languages is sounded like k; as in Munich. Sch in German words is sounded like sh; as in Schwerin; but in Dutch like sk as in Schledam (skt-dam).

D at the end of German and Dutch words is sounded like to

G is hard before a, o, and u; and in Dutoh and German before all vowels. G before c, i, y, in French, Spanish, and Fortuguese, has the sound of j. Gu before c and i in French and Spanish sounds like g hard.

Gn in French and Italian words has g silent; as in Boulogne.
D, S, T, X, at the end of French words is not sounded, except in words frequently used in English; as Paris, Brest, Rheims, Arras.

Th in foreign words is sounded like t; except in Greek words, in which th has the same sound as with us.

The names of places in the United States of America follow the same rules as English names.

LESSON 1 .- WATURE OF GEOGRAPHY.

- 1. Geography is a description of the surface of the Earth, insluding its relation to the Sun and other heavenly bodies; its ilimate, soil, and natural products; its divisions into countries, with he occupations, government, religion, education, language, and manners of its inhabitants.
- 2. Geography comprises several branches. 1. Mathematical, which describes the form and movements of the Earth with regard to the Sun and the other heavenly bodies. 2. Physical, which relates to the earth's surface, climate, soil, minerals, vegetables, and animals in a state of nature. 8. Polit cal, which explains its territorial divisions. 4. Industrial, which describes the occupations of the inhabitants. 5. Social, which relates to the government, religion, education, language, manners, and character of the people. 6. Historical, which records the changes and events which have taken place.

THE HARTH-ITS FORM, MOTIONS, &c.

- Sa. The Earth is one of those bodies called Planets, which constantly revolve round the Sun, at different distances and in different periods, and derive light and heat from it.
- b. The Planets or Wanderers are so called, from their continually changing their places, and returning at given periods in the same path.
- 4. The Earth, in Form, is a body resembling a globe or sphere, a little flattened at each pole.
- a. That the Earth is of a globular form is usually thus proved. When a ship goes out to sea, we first lose sight of the hull, then of the sails and lower rig-ging, and lastly, of the upper part of the masts. When, on the contrary, the ship is advancing towards the shore, the topmast first appears in view, then the sails, and afterwards the hull. If the earth were not spherical, the ship would gradually appear larger as it approached, and the hull, the largest part, would be first seen
- b. In an Eclipse of the Moon, when the moon's surface is darkened by the shadow of the earth, the boundary of the shadow on the moon's disc is always
- c. Several Navigators have sailed quite round the earth (not indeed in an exact circle, the winding of the shores preventing them from sailing in a direct line), and arrived, by an opposite course, at the same port from which they commenced their voyage.
- Sa. The Circumference of the Earth or Globe is a line drawn round its surface, so as to divide it precisely into two equal parts or halves. These halves are called the two *Hemispheres*, or half spheres; the words sphere and globe having the same meaning.
- b. The Centre of the Earth is a point in the middle of it, from
- which all lines drawn to any part of the surface will be equal.

 c. The Diameter of the Earth is a line drawn from two opposits points of its surface, and passes through its centre.
- d. The Earth is 24,857 miles in circumference, and 7,912 miles in diameter.
- e. The Orbit of a planet is the nearly circular path which it describes round the sun; the time in which it completes this revolution varies according to its distance. The Earth, which is 91,328,600 miles from the sun, performs its revolution round it in 365 days, 5 brs., 48 min., and 48 sec. This is called its annual revolution, and causes the difference in the length of the days and nights, and

4 EUROPEAN GEOUMAPHY AND HISTORY. [Lesson 2.

the various seasons. Besides this motion, the earth is constantly revolving on its own axis, and performs a complete revolution of this kind in 24 hours, called its disrnal motion. During this rotation of the earth from seat to east, part of it is towards the sun and part is turned from it; and this is what causes day

and night

f. The diurnal motion, which causes the apparent motion of the heavenly bodies from east to sees, makes us imagine that the sun and stars, which are apparently stationary, move round it. Hence, we speak as if this were the case; thus, the sun is said to rise, to set, and to culminate, that is, to be in the meridian; or at his greatest height.

LESSON 2.—THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Ga. The Sun and the Planets revolving round it, constitute the Solar System.

b. The Sun is an immense globe placed near the centre of this system, and dispensing light and heat to the planets that revolve around it. Its magnitude is nearly one million four hundred thousand times larger than that of the earth.

c. The Planets are either primary, which revolve round the sun only; or secondary, which revolve round other planets (as the moon round the earth), and by the motion of their primary planets are carried round the Sun also.

- d. The Earth and the other planets are wonderfully retained in their orbits by the exact balancing of two opposing forces; the one called Centripètal, from the tendency which the planets have to be drawn towards the sun as the centre; and the other called centrif'agal, from the constant inclination which they have to fly off from him into infinite space.
- e. The Moon has three motions. 1. Round the Earth called Periodic in 27 days 7 hours 43 min. 5 sec. In this revolution, when the moon comes be ween the earth and sun, an Eclipse of the Som takes place; when the earth comes between the moon and sun, an Eclipse of the Moon takes place. 2. A second round its own axis, forming a Synodical Month of 29 days 12 hrs. 44 min. 3 sec.; or from the sun to the sun again, that is, from new moon to new moon. It is then in conjunction with the sun, that is, between the earth and sun; when being opaque, the side which is turned towards the earth is not illuminated, and consequently is invisible to us. Gradually the moon's disc increases to the 14th day, when, the moon being then in opposition to the sun, her winde disc is illuminated, and then appears a full moon. Afterwards, she gradually decreases to the end of 29i days. 3. A third motion is round the sun in a year along with the earth. In almanacks, &c. the new moon is represented by . the full moon by .
- 7a. Comets (κομητης, komētes long-hair) are luminous bodies which move round the Sun in an eccentric manner (εκ, εk, from; κεντρον, kentron, a centre), that is, the length of their orbit greatly exceeds its breadth. The number of Comets belonging to the Solar System has not been ascertained, but the orbits of one hundred and thirty have been determined with tolerable precision; while the periodical return of two has been found to agree exactly with the calculation.
- b. The Solar System forms only a small part of the Universe. For, on every side of the Rarth, we find a multitude of stars above us called fixed stars, because they appear to preserve the same distance with respect to each other. About one thousand of these are visible to the eye in a clear night; but, by the aid of telescopes, it has been discovered that there are millions. They are at an immense distance from us, and are supposed to be suns, enlightening other worlds.
- c. The fixed stars have a twinkling appearance, and are thus distinguished from the planets which shine with a steady light.

LESSON 3.—THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE BARTH.

- So The Surface of the Earth presents the two grand divisions of Land and Water. About one-third is land, and two-thirds are water.
- 9. LAND.—The Land is divided into Continents, Countries, Islands, Peninsulas, Isthmuses, Promontories, Capes, Mountains, Shores or Coasts, Deserts, Plains, &c.

A Continent (from Lat. con, together, tenco, I hold) is a very great extent of land, containing many countries; as the Eastern Continent, including Europe, Asia, and Africa, and the Western, containing North and South America.

A Country is a smaller portion of land, distinguished by a par-

ticular name, people, and form of government.

An Island (from Saxon is or ea, water, and land) is land entirely surrounded by water, as Ireland.

A Peninsula (from pene-insula) is land almost surrounded by water; as, the Morēa in Greece.

water; as, the Morea in Greece.

An Isthmus (from ισθμος, Isthmos) is a neck of land uniting a

peninsula to the mainland; as, the *Isthmus of Corinth*.

A *Promontory* (from Lat. pro, in front, mons, a mountain) is high land jutting into the sea. A Cape (Lat. caput, the head) is the

extremity of a promontory or of a peninsula, as, Cape Clear.

Mass, ness, head, and point, have nearly the same meaning as cape.

A Mountain is a vast prominence on the surface of the Earth; as, the Alps.

The heights of mountains are reckoned from the level of the sea. Mountains sometimes occur singly, but generally united, forming chains or ridges of various lengths and heights. Mountains are useful in supplying springs and streams from the snow and vapours which collect on them at all seasons; in moderating the heat, so that without them many parts of the earth would become barren, like the deserts of Africa; and also in moderating the moteture: thus, when it is wet in Norway on the W. of the Dovrefeld mountains, it is dry in Sweden on the E. of them.

A Volcano (from Vulcānus, the god of fire) is a burning mountain, with an opening called a Crater, from which fire or smoke continually rises.

Volcances, during their cruption, throw out melted stones or lava, which flows in a terrible stream, destroying every thing in its way. Volcances, however, are useful in giving vent to the internal fires of the earth, which might otherwise cause such earthquakes as would destroy whole countries.

A Shore or Coast is that land which borders on the sea, A Desert is a barren tract of land, generally covered with sand.

The most remarkable desert in the world is Zahāra, or the Great Desert, in North Africa, a vast plain of heated sand, about 8,000 miles long, containing some fertile spots, called \bar{O} daes, scattered in various parts like islands in the ocean.

Prairies (from French prairie, a meadow), in the United States of America, are immense plains covered with grass; these are called Steppes (pr. steps) in Asia, and Pampas or Llances in South America.

with hollow and rising places, and grazed by sheep. The strand is that part of a shore which is covered with the sea at high water, and lies bare at the ebb. Downs on land commonly signify a high open country, free from any tree Sand-basks are those heaps of sand under water of which some appear when the tide is out, and others never appear. They are sometimes denominated shoals, flats, or shellows, because in those places the sea is shallows than it is in other parts. Where these banks have rooks mixed with the sands, they are commonly called shelves. A similar assemblage of rocks is called a reef.

LESSON 4 .- THE WATER.

10. The Water consists of Oceans, Seas, Lakes, Gulfs or Bays, Channels, and Straits, with Creeks, Roads, Havens or Harbours, Friths or Estuaries, Sounds, and Rivers.

An Ocean is the largest extent of salt water; as, the Atlantic Ocean.

Utility of the Ocean.—The waters of the ocean, besides being the habitation of innumerable fish, and serving as it were as the highway from one part of the globe to another, tend to purify the air by their incessant motion. The vapours also which rise from them fall in rain and snow to water the earth. They are nearly always of the same temperature; and the winds which blow from them coul the earth in summer, and warm it in winter. By perpetually circulating in currents, they carry the warm water of hot countries to cold ones, and bring back cold water to cool the warmer regions.

A Sea is a smaller portion of salt water than an ocean; as, the Irish Sea.

A Lake is a body of water entirely surrounded by land: as Lake Ladoga in Russia.

Lagoon is a shallow lake into which the sea occasionally flows.

A Gulf is a body of water almost surrounded by land; as, the

Gulf of Venice,

A Bay is a portion of sea running into the land, but wider than a gulf; as, the Boy of Biscay. A Strait is a narrow passage of water uniting two seas; as, the Straits of Dover. A Channel is a wider passage of water than a strait; as, St. George's Channel. A Creek is a narrow branch of the sea running up into the land.

A Road affords anchorage a little way off the land, with partial shelter from the winds. A Haven or Harbour is a place where ships

may lie in safety; as, Portsmouth Harbour.

A Frith or Estuary is the widening of a river into an arm of

the sea; as, the Frith of Forth.

A Scuad is a strait so shallow that it may be sounded; as, the Sound of Mull in Scotland.

A River is a considerable stream of inland water, which takes its rise either in some mountain or in some high land, and runs into the sea, or into a larger river; as, the Thames, the Treat.

Benefits of Rivers.-Rivers usually overflow their banks during the seasons of heavy rains, making the land near them very fertile. Some countries, like Egypt, which have no rain, are watered only by their rivers. Rivers are also useful in furnishing an abundance of fresh water, and in constantly supplying the ocean.

A Watershed is the line of highest ground from which rivers flow. The navigation of rivers is often interrupted by Rapids and Falls.

LESSON S .- THE CIRCLES.

- 12. The real figure of the Earth is best represented by an artificial Globe on the surface of which are traced a number of circles or lines, that the position of places may be more conveniently and accurately determined. These circles are either great or small.
- 12a. A great circle divides the globe into two equal parts; a small circle into two unequal parts. Every circle is divided into 360 equal parts called degrees (marked on maps thus, °); every degree into 60 geographical miles or misutes (marked '); and every minute into 60 seconds (marked "). The degrees vary in extent, according to the magnitude of the circles. On the great circles, a degree, being the 360th part of the Earth's circumference, is equal to 60 geographical miles, or about 69 h English miles.
- a. The wire on which an artificial globe turns, is called its axis; the ends of this axis are the goles; one of which is called the North or Arctic pole, because it always points to a star in the constellation Arctos or the Bear; and the other the South or Asserctic pole.
- 13a. Of the great circles, the most remarkable are the Equator, the Ecliptic, the Horizon, and the Meridian.
- b. The Equator is an imaginary circle drawn round the globe, which divides it into the northern and southern hemispheres, every point of which is equally distant from the poles.
- c. The equator is likewise called the Equinocial Line, or by way of eminence, the Line; because, when the sun appears to move over it, the days and nights all over the earth are of an equal length. This happens twice a year, about the list of March, which is therefore called the Vernal Equinox; and about the 23rd of September, called the Automatal Equinox.
- 14a. The Ecliptic is a circle which cuts the equator obliquely at two opposite points, and represents the sun's apparent path in the heavens.
- The Heliptic passes through the middle of an imaginary broad circle or belt in the heavens, called the Zodiac (see No. 26).
- 25c. The Horizon is the imaginary line which bounds the view on the surface of the earth, and is either Rational or Sensible. If, placed at the centre of the Globe, we could take within our view one half of the heavenly sphere, a large circle would appear to cut the globe into two equal parts; that circle would be the Rational Horizon. The Sensible Horizon is the circle that bounds our view where the earth and sky appear to meet. The level or plane surface on which the spectator stands is called the Plane of the Sensible Horizon.
- b. The Rational Horison is represented by the broad wooden circle on the terrestrial globe.
- **LESSON 6.—16**a. A Meridian (from meridies, mid-day) is a great circle passing through the poles. Every place on the Earth has its meridian; thus, a circle drawn through London and passing

through the poles, is the meridian of London; a circle drawn through Edinburgh, or Paris, or Madrid, and passing through the

poles, is the meridian of Edinburgh, of Paris, of Madrid.

b. The Meridian from which we calculate the distance of places east or west, is called the first Meridian; and that distance is the Longitude of a place. All places in the British Isles reckon their first Meridian or Longitude from Greenwich, near London. The lengths of the degrees of Longitude diminish as they advance towards the poles.

c. Longitude is denoted by lines which run from the top to the bottom of a map, and is expressed by figures at the top and bottom. When the figures increase from the left to the right, the Longitude is East; but when they increase from right to left, the Longitude is West. The Longitude can never be more than 180 degrees either

E. or W.

- 17a. The Latitude (from latus, wide) of a place is its distance North or South from the Equator, and this can never be more than 90 degrees North or South. Latitude is denoted by lines running across the map, and is expressed by figures at the sides. If the figures increase upwards the latitude is North; if they increase downwards, it is South. All places in England are in N. Latitude; all in Australia are in S. Latitude.
- b. Parallels of latitude are small circles parallel to the Equator, which diminish in size as they approach the poles. Of these parallels, the most remarkable are the Polar or the Arctic and Antarctic circles: the Tropic of Cancer, and the Tropic of Capricorn. The Arctic Circle is 234 degrees from the North Pole; the Antarctic Circle is 234 degrees from the South Pole; the Tropic of Cancer is 234 degrees north of the Equator; the Tropic of Capricorn is 234 degrees south of the Equator.

c. The Tropics (from τρεπω, trepō, I turn) are so called, because when the Sun arrives at either of them, he is said to turn back to the other. The sun arrives at the Tropic of Cancer on the 21st of June, which is called by us the Summer Solstice (from Lat. sol, the sun, sto, I stand), when those who live north of this tropic have the longest day and the shortest night; and those south of the equator the contrary. The sun arrives at the Tropic of Capricorn on the 21st of December, which is our Winter Solstice.

LESSON 7.-THE ZOWES.

- **18.** The Surface of the Earth is divided into five Zones or Belts (from Covn, zone, a girdle); one Torrid; two Temperate; and two Frigid.
- 19a. The Torrid Zone (so called from its heat) is the middle portion of the Earth's surface, extending from the Tropic of Cancer, Lat. 23½° N. to the Tropic of Capricorn, Lat. 23½° S.
- b. Within this space, the sun is directly over the heads of the inhabitants twice a year, when the heat is intense. At the equator, the Days and Night, are equal, the sun rising at 6 o'clock that setting at 6 o'clock throughout the year. At 16° N, or S, the longest day is about 13 hours, and the shortest about 11 hours. Twilight is here always short, sunset being speedily followed by darkness. The greatest quantity of rain falls at the Equator; this decreases as we recede from the Equator to the Poles. A greater quantity falls in Tropical America (about 115 inches) than in the Old World, which rarely exceeds 78 inches. Though the amount of rain which falls is greatest in the Tropics, yet the number of rainy days rarely exceed 80, whilst in England we have at least 154 rainy days in the year. In these regions, the rains follow the Eun; that is, when the sun is North of the equator the rains prevail in that Tropic; when he is South of

that line, they prevail in the Southern. From the Equator to 5° N. and S., there are two seasons in the year, the rainy in winter, and the dry in summer. In the regions subject to the variable winds, that is from 5° to about 12° N. or S. of the Equator, rain is almost incessant, accompanied by thunder and lightning. From 12° to 22§° N. and S. of the Equator, there are two rainy and two dry seasons in the year. During the rainy season the rain falls in torrents, so that a larger quantity falls in a few hours than in a month with us. Within this zone are found the finest fruits and trees, the largest and most ferocious animals, and the most venomous serpents and insects.

20a. The two Temperate Zones lie between the Tropics and the Polar Circles; the North Temperate extending from the Tropic of Cancer 231° N. to the Arctic Circle 661° N.; the South Temperate from the Tropic of Capricorn 231°S. to the Antarctic Circle 661° South. These zones have four Seasons, Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter, and as the Sun is here never overhead, they are free from the intense heat of the Torrid Zone, and possess a more pleasant and healthful climate.

b. These zones are frequently subdivided into—1. The Sub-Tropical, which extend from the Tropics to lat. 34° N. and S. 2. The Warm Temperate, extending from 24° to 46° N. and S. 3. The Cold Temperate, from 46° to 58° N. and S. 3. The Cold Temperate, from 46° to 58° N. and S. 4. The Sub-Arctic and Sub-Antarctic, from 58° to 663° N. and S. Hardy and useful animals abound in these zones, and the inhabitants have generally more strength of body and mind than those in the torrid and frigid zones.

21. The two Frigid Zones include the space between the Poles and the Arctic and Antarctic Circles; that is, from 661° to 90° N. and S. The regions within these circles are the coldest on the earth, being chiefly covered with ice. They have only two Seasons, a long winter of extreme cold, and a short summer of great heat, without any spring or autumn. The nights in winter are from 24 hours to 6 months; decreasing as we recede from the poles. Nothing grows here except a little moss.

LESSON 8 .- TEMPERATURE.

22a. The Temperature of a country denotes the degree of heat or cold to which the atmosphere is subject, its humidity or dryness, its changeableness or uniformity; and thus its adaptation to the comfort and health of its inhabitants.

The temperature of a country depends chiefly on the following:-1. On its Latitude, or distance from the Equator, as the cold increases from the Equator to the Poles. 2. Its height above the level of the sea, for the higher we ascend the colder the air becomes. Even in the Torrid Zone, mountainous and elevated districts enjoy an agreeable climate. 3. The proximity to the sea, for districts near the sea are cooler in summer and warmer in winter than those at a distance. 4. The prevalence of certain winds, by bringing the colder or warmer air from one country to another; thus, the Eastern coasts of England are exposed to the easterly winds blowing from the German plains, very cold and drying; while the Western shores are subject to the warm and moist westerly winds from the Atlantic

c. Other important but secondary causes influencing a climate are these:—1. The slope of a country, or the aspect which it presents to the sun, whether towards the north or the south. 2. The position of certain monatain choims, as they afford protection from certain predominating winds. 3. The nature of the soil: thus, a sandy or marly soil is warmer than a clayey one. 3. The degree of cultivation, for lands drained and cultivated are warmer than those which are swampy and uncultivated. 5. Countries whose atmosphere is moist have in general warmer winters and cooler summers than others, though not perhaps equally healthy. 6. For the reasons above stated, the average temperatures of places do not correspond with their latitudes. To show what places have the same annual temperature, imaginary lines are, on some maps, drawn through them, which are called isothermal lines, or lines of equal heat.

LESSON 9,-THE SEASONS.

Note.—By young pupils, this and the following lesson may be deferred till some advance has been made.

- 23a. The North Pole of the Earth always points towards the North Star in the heavens, and its axis is inclined to the Ecliptic; hence, as the Earth moves round the sun, the North Pole is sometimes towards the sun, and sometimes turned from it.
- b. The sun heats those parts of the earth most which are most directly exposed to its rays, as a fire heats those things most which are directly before it; consequently the countries farthest from these rays receive only a small portion of heat. This causes the variety of seasons in different parts of the earth.
- 24a. During one half of the year, from the 21st of March to the 23rd of September, the North Pole is toward the sun, and the South Pole is turned from it. The Sun is then most directly over the Northern hemisphere, when it is Summer there, and Winter in the Southern hemisphere. b. During the other half of the year, from the 23rd of September to the 21st of March, the Southern hemisphere is towards the sun, and thus has Summer, when it is Winter in the Northern hemisphere. Hence, the Northern and Southern hemispheres have always opposite Seasons; thus, when it is summer in England, it will be winter in Australia, Cape of Good Hope, Chili, &cc.
- 25. As the North Pole is most turned towards the sun in the middle of Summer (June 21), and the South Pole in the middle of our Winter (Dec. 21), which is summer in the South, this difference will daily diminish during the intermediate periods. In the middle of Spring and the middle of Autumn, the two poles will be equally distant from the sun, whose rays will then fall directly on the Equator, so that day and night will be of equal length in all parts of the world. The periods when this happens are called the Vernal (March 21) and Autumnal (Sept. 23) Equinoxes.

The subjoined diagram will illustrate these explanations :-



- 26. An imaginary broad Belt or Circle in the heavens, which the Ecliptic divides into two equal parts, was called by the ancient Egyptian astronomers Zodiac (signifying an animal); because they imagined the constellations (or clusters of stars), included within this belt to resemble certain animals from which they named each constellation.
- 27. Both the Zodiac and Ecliptic are divided into 12 equal parts, called signs, each denoting a constellation or collection of fixed stars, through which the sun appears to move in about a month, and through the whole in a year. Rach of the twelve signs is divided into thirty smaller parts, called degrees, nearly corresponding to as many days.

Exercises.—1. Answer questions proposed. 2. When it is spring or summer in England, state the season in the following:—

Calcutta Cape Town Pekin Sydney Madras New York Canton Lime Valparaiso Hobart Town Buenos Ayres Quito.

LESSON 10.-DAYS AND MIGHTS.

Note.—This Lesson, if found difficult, can be deferred for a time by a very young pupil.

- 28. As the Earth turns on its axis in 24 hours, all parts of the earth have alternately day and night, but not of equal length. At places under the Equator, the days are always equal, or 12 hours each, and the sun rises and sets at six o'clock the whole year round. On the 21st of March and the 23rd of September, when the sun is directly over the Equator, it enlightens half of each hemisphere, and the days and nights are equal in all parts of the world. These periods, as previously stated, are called Equinoxes.
- 29a. From the 21st of March to the 23rd of September, or in our Summer, the Sun shines continually at the North Pole, causing 6 months day at that Pole, and leaving the South Pole 6 months in darkness. Every place in the Northern Hemisphere has thus more than 12 hours of light during our summer; and every place in the Southern Hemisphere has less than 12 hours.
- b. From September 23rd to March 21st, or in our winter half year, the North Pole has continual night, and the South Pole continual day. At the same time the Southern Hemisphere has days of more than twelve hours, while our days are shorter. It is in this way that the long days of summer and the short days of winter are caused.
- c. From the Equator to the Polar Circles, the days increase as the Latitude increases. At the Arctic and Antarctic Circles (Lat. 6610), the longest day is 24 hours, the longest night the same. In Latitude 67° the longest day is one month; in 70° two months; in 80° four months; and at the Poles six months.
- d. As a compensation for the absence of sunlight, in high latitudes the d. As a compensation for the absence of similarity, in fight natures and extend over the greatest northern Lights, appear with the greatest finite, and extend over the greater part of the hemisphere, presenting a light somewhat resembling that which precedes sunrise. By means of these lights, the linhal tants are enabled to travel from one place to another. In the north-east parts of Siberia, Hudson's Bay, &c., they are frequently attended with a continual hissing and cracking noise through the sir.

 30a. To find the difference of time between two places.—Rule. For every 15 degrees of longitude East of London reckon one hour earlier, and for every 15

degrees West of London one hour later.

b. As the Earth moves from West to East the whole 360 degrees in 24 hours,

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it moves in that direction 15 degrees in one hour. If the sun, therefore, rise at a certain hour at a given place, it will rise one hour earlier at a place 15 degrees further east; or one hour later at a place 15 degrees further west.

Exercises.—When it is 9 or 12 o'clock in London, state the hour in the following :--

Petersburg Turin Cairo Stockholm Lima Aleppo Sierra Leone Santiago Cape Town Buenos Ayres. Brussels Smyrna

LEGGOW 11.-DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS.

- 31a. Plants, in some or other of their forms, are scattered over the surface of the earth, affording sustenance to man and other animals. Each portion of the earth has its own appropriate plants, adapted to its climate, soil, and elevation above the level of the sea. Thus, some plants thrive most in hot regions, others in temperate and others in cold or mountainous districts.
- b. Plants are said to be annual when they spring up and decay in one season; biennial (bis-annus), when they send forth stems and leaves in the first year, and perfect their flowers and fruits in the second; decidence, when they cast their leaves in the autumn and renew them in the spring; peresnial (peransul), when they live a greater or less number of years; and everyrees when they are never destitute of foliage.
- 32a. The Temperature of the air is the chief agent in limiting the range of any vegetable species. The surface of the earth is usually divided into 8 Zones or Regions of vegetation, named from the plants most prevailing in each.
- 1. The Equatorial Region, from the Equator to about 15° N. & S. lat., with a temperature ranging from 79° to the most intense heat, is the district of palma, bananas, spices, bread-fruit, and aromatic plants.

 2. The Tropical Region, extending from lat. 15° N. and S. to the Tropics, with

a mean annual temperature of 76°, is the district of tree-ferns, figs, coffee, sugar, rice, maize, cotton.

3. The Sub-Tropical Region, from the Tropics to lat. 34°, with a mean annual temperature of 76°, is the district of myrtles, laurels, olives, tea-plant, rice,

- temperature of 76°, is the district of myrties, laurels, olives, tea-plant, rice, maize, ootton, fig. &c.

 4. The Warm Temperate Region, from lat. 34° to 45°, with a meas annual temperature of 58°, is the district of everyreens, vines, wheat, maize, chestnuts, &c.

 5. The Cold Temperate Region, between 45° and 58°, with a meas annual temperature of 48°, is characterised by wheat, oats, potato, flax, hemp, the ordinary fruits, and forest trees.
- 6. The Sub-Arctic Region, from lat. 58° to the Arctic circle, lat. 664°, with a mean annual temperature of 38° or 35°, contains forests of firs, pines, birch, larch, &c.

7. The Arctic Region, from the Arctic circle, lat. 681° to lat. 72°, with a mean annual temperature of 30°, produces rhododendrons, lichens, mosses.

8. The Polar Region, beyond lat. 72° to the farthest limits of vegetation, produces only a little moss and coarse grass.

For Exercises.—Draw a map divided into Regions, in each of which insert the names of the plants.

LESSON 12.-DISTRIBUTION OF ANIMALS,

- 33a. Animals, like plants, are distributed over the surface of the globe, abounding most in those climates which are best suited to their respective natures.
- b. Animals, by a providential arrangement, are adapted to the situations in which they are placed. Thus, in cold regions they are covered with thick and warm fur; while in warm regions, they are clothed only with hair thinly

scattered, or have a skin entirely naked. Sheep in temperate regions are covered with a warm fleece of wool, but when transported to a warmer climate, they change the wool into a coat of glossy hair. Even in the same climate, the quantity of covering is accommodated to the alternations of the seasons. At the approach of winter, the hair is increased in quantity and length, as may be observed in our domestic animals. The migratory instinct too, which leads some birds to remove their quarters at the change of seasons is another instance of admirable arrangement, by which they can enjoy at all times a climate suited to their wants.

34. Animals are arranged by modern naturalists into four great divisions:—
1. The Vertebrated; 2. the Molluscous; 3. the Ariculated, and 4. the Radiated.
A more familiar but less scientific classification of animals is the following:—

Bipeds, quadrupeds, birds, fishes, reptiles, insects, and worms.

- 1, Vertebrated animals (Lat. from vertebra, a joint of the backbone) possess a skull and backbone, and the organs of sight, hearing, smell, and taste. This class includes many species: as, 1. Mammatia (Lat. mamma, a test), animals that suckle their young; as, woman, cow, and all quadrupeds. 2. Birds. 3. Reptiles (Lat. from repo, I creep), those which crawl or move on their belies, or by means of short legs, as crocodiles, serpents, lizards, frogs, &c. 4. Such fishes as have a bony skeleton, as cod, herring, &c.—2. Moliusous animals (Lat. mollis, soft) have soft pulpous bodies without a bony skeleton, as cuttle-fish, sasils, and marine shell-fish, as the oyster.—3. Articulated animals (Lat. articulate, a little joint) have the head and successive portions jointed together, as the insect tribes, fites, spiders, bees, &c.—4. Radiated animals (Lat. radius, a ray) are of a star-like shape, with organs of motion and sense, which radiate from a common centre, as the star-fish, sea-nettles, corals, amemories.
- **35a.** In *Tropical regions*, the *quadrupeds* are the most numerous and the most remarkable for size, strength, and ferocity; as the *elephant*, rhinoceros, lion, tiger, &c. The reptiles are larger and more venomous; as, the *crocodile*, the boa of India, and the python of America; and the birds are decked with a more splendid plumage than in the temperate zones; as, the bird of Paradise, the parrot tribe, &c.
- b. In Temperate regions the more useful animals abound; as, the horse, cow, sheep, pig, goat, ass. The large voracious reptiles of the torrid zone are not found here; venomous serpents are few, and of a smaller size. The birds have a simpler plumage but a more melodious note. The wild quadrupeds are the wolf, bear, fox, lynx, wild boar, wild cat, and weasel.
- c. In the Arctic regions there are few land animals, and those are covered with the thickest fur; as the sable, ermine, fox, and polar bear. The sea abounds with seal, whale, &c.

For an Exercise,—Draw a Map divided into regions, and insert in each the names of its respective animals.

LESSON 13.-VARIETIES OF MAN.

36. The Human race is usually divided into five great branches or varieties, namely:—1, the Caucasian; 2, the Mongolian; 3, the Ethiopian or Negro; 4, the Malay; and 5, the American.

1a. The Caucasian variety derives its name from a district inclosed by the mountains between the Black and Caspian seas. It is characterised by a white or light-coloured skin (but varying according to climate), soft flowing hair, ample beard, oval face, expanded fore head, and small mouth.

5. The Caucasias branch inhabits Caucasia, Georgia, Asiatic Turkey. Persia, Arabia, Turkestan, Afghanistan, and Hindostan in Asia; Egypt, Abyssinia,

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Morocco, and the northern parts of Africs; the whole of Europe (except the Magyars of Hungary), with their descendants in America, Australia, &c.

- 2a. In the Mongolian variety, the skin is yellowish or olive; the face broad and flattened; the forehead low; the eyes small, black, and obliquely set; mouth wide, lips thick, cheek bones prominent, and the beard small.
- b. In this class are comprised the tribes occupying the North, Central, and South-East of Asia, as the people of China, Tibet, Chinese Turkestau, Japan, Burmah, Siam, Annam, with Lapland, and the Esquimaux in the extreme north of North America.
- 3a. In the *Ethiopian* or *Negro* branch, the skin is black, the hair short, black, and woolly; the forehead low and retreating, the cheek bones prominent, the nose broad and flat, and the lips very thick.
- b. This branch comprises nearly all Africa, with the exception of Egypt, Abyssinia, and the northern coasts.
- 4a. In the Malay branch, the skin varies from a light tawny colour to a deep brown; the hair is black and abundant; the head rather narrow; the mouth rather wide, and nose broad.
- b. The Malay race includes the aboriginal tribes of Malacca, Ceylon, the Asiatic islands, New Zealand, and Polynesia.
- 5a. In the American branch, the colour of the skin is reddish, the hair black, straight, and strong; the beard small; the cheek bones high; the eyes sunk; forehead retreating, and the nose prominent.

The American race comprises all the aboriginal American tribes except the Esquimaux. By some writers, the Malay and American races are regarded as only modifications of the negro.

As an Exercise,-Answer questions proposed and Draw a Map.

LESSON 14.—THE PRINCIPAL MODERN LANGUAGES.

- 37. The principal Modern Languages are the following:-
- 2a. The English Language (derived chiefly from the Anglo-Saxon, with an admixture of Norman, French, Latin, and other languages) is spoken in England, Scotland, Ireland, and partly in Wales; in the United States of America; in the settlements of British America; the West Indies; and among the settlements of Australia, Hindostan, Cape of Good Hope, and the other British Colonies throughout the World. It is also now much used by the European nations in telegraphing, as being the best medium for conveying important information in the fewest words.
- b. The Welsh is spoken by the lower classes in Wales; the Irish by the lower Irish; the Gälle or Erse by the Highlanders of Scotland; the Manx by the inhabitants of the Isle of Man.
- 2a. The German Language, a branch of the Teutonic, is spoken throughout Germany, in Alsace, lately a prov. in France, and in the parts of Switzerland bordering on Germany. It is divided into two

branches, High and Low. High German is spoken chiefly in the Southern parts of Germany; Low German or Saxon is spoken in the Northern parts.

- b. The Scandinavian language, also a branch of the Teutonic, embraces the Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian dialects.
- \$. The French Language (derived from the Latin, but with a large admixture of foreign words) is spoken in France, in the Southern parts of Belgium, in the Western districts of Switzerland, and in the German provinces on the Rhine; in East Canada by the descendants of the former French settlers, in Haiti, and several of the West India Islands. It is understood in every court of Europe, and is much used in various parts of the world.
- 4. The Spanish Language (derived from the Latin) is spoken in Spain, in its present and former dependencies, Cuba, Mexico, Central America, New Granāda, Venezuela, Ecuādor, Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and the Argentine Republic.
- 5. The Portuguese Language (derived from the Latin) is spoken in Portugal, Brazil, Madeira, the Azōres, in the dependencies in East and West Africa, and in Goa in Hindostan.
- 6. The *Italian Languags* (also derived from the Latin) is spoken throughout Italy, Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica, is much used on the shores of the Mediterranean, and has supplied many terms in Music.
- 7. The Dutch is spoken in Holland, in its dependencies—Java, Surinam, Sumatra, &c., and by the Dutch descendants in the Cape of Good Hope.
- Sa. The Russian is spoken in European Russia, and in most parts of Asiatic Russia. b. The Hungarian is spoken by the Magyars in Hungary.
- 9. The Romaic, or modern Greek, is spoken in Greece, and by the Greeks throughout the Turkish Empire.
- 10. The Turkish is mostly confined to the Turks in Europe and Asia.
- 21. In Asia, the principal languages are—1. The Chinese and Japanese, which are extensively spoken. 2. The Arabic which is spoken in Arabia, Syria, Egypt, throughout the North of Africa, and in several other parts. 3. The Persic. 4. Of the numerous dialects of Hindostan, the chief are—the Hindostanee, Rengalee, Mahratta, and Tamil. Besides the above-named there are numerous dialects confined to certain districts.

LESSON 15.—SOCIETY AND FORMS OF GOVERNMENT.

38. A State is a body of people connected with the same government, and yielding obedience to the same general laws. That part of the earth which they possess is called the *territory* of the state, and the body of inhabitants,—the people.

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39a. The members of some states, whether they are personally rich or poor, are free, enjoying equal rights, and subject to the supreme law alone, as in Great Britain, where every individual has full scope for the exercise of his taste, talents, and exertions. In several other countries a difference of right prevails; many of the labourers being mere serfs or slaves, without any personal rights at all, as was the case in Prussia till 1810, and in Russia till 1863.

b. In all states, the great body of the people are called Commons; if born in certain cities, they are called Citizens. Some individuals who have been conspicuous for the exercise of great talents, which have proved beneficial to the State, are in several countries very properly ennobled; that is, have certain titles and privileges conferred upon them which can be transmitted to their descendants. In Great Britain, the privileges of the nobility do not (as formerly was the case in France) exempt the holders from any duty or tax due to the state, but are strictly confined to the perpetuation of their rank and estates to their posterity.

40. The power of governing a state is called the Sovereignty, and the person who exercises it the Sovereign. The supreme or sovereign power consists of three parts:-1. The Legislative, which enacts laws. 2. The Judicial, which determines the application of the law to individual cases; and 3. The Executive, which puts the law in execution. The particular manner in which the sovereignty is exercised, is called the Form of Government.

41a. A Monarchy is that state in which the supreme power is vested in one person, and it may be either arbitrary or limited, here-ditary or elective. When the monarch has the exercise of the supreme power without control, that is, when his will is the law. the state is called an arbitrary or despotic monarchy; as Russia, Turkey, and many states of Asia.

b. That state in which the monarch has only a part of the supreme power in common with some of his subjects (as the Nobility, Clergy, and Commons), and is bound to observe the fundamental laws or Constitution of the kingdom, is called a constitutional or limited

Monarchy, as, in Great Britain.

c. Hereditary Monarchy descends by inheritance to a son, daughter, or relative of the same family. Great Britain, Denmark, and Holland, are hereditary monarchies.

d. In an Elective Monarchy, the chief magistrate is chosen by certain electors, on the death or abdication of his predecessor. Such, formerly, were Poland and the German Empire.

- 42. Persons appointed by others to represent their interests and wishes are called Representatives; the nobles are called Peers; the assembly of peers and representatives in consultation for the management of public affairs is called in England a Parliament; in some other countries a Diet, Congress, &c.
- 43a. A Republic is that state in which the supreme power is shared by many, and it may be either an aristocracy or a democracy. b. An Aristocracy is a republican state in which the supreme power is consigned to the nobles, and when very few, it is called an Oligarchy. Venice and Genoa were once of this class,

- c. A Democracy is a republican government in which the supreme power is placed in the hands of rulers chosen by and from the whole body of the people, or by their representatives assembled in a congress or national assembly; as, in the United States of America, which elect their President every four years.
- 44. In Great Britain, monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy are wisely blended, and the powers of the King (or Queen Regnant), the Lords, and the Commons, have been modified so as to form a reciprocal check on each other, and therefore, a safeguard against oppression. Under the British Constitution, indeed, greater personal freedom is enjoyed by all classes than under any other political constitution in the world. Aristocracy and democracy are blended in the Swiss States.

LESSON 16.—DIFFERENT RELIGIONS.

45. The four prevailing religions of the world are the Christian.

Jewish, Mahometan, and Pagan.

a. Christians are those persons who believe in Jesus Christ as the Saviour of the world, and follow His precepts and those of His Apostles. There are three great divisions of Christians-Roman Catholics, Greek, and Protestant Christians, each having peculiar doctrines and modes of worship. A number of Christians adhering to the same opinions and forms of worship is called a Church.

- b. Those Christians who profess submission to the Pope or Bishop of Rome are called Roman Catholics. Those who have separated from the Romish Church are called Protestants or Reformers. From the two most eminent reformers, Luther and Calvin, those who embrace the opinions of the former are called Lutherans: of the latter, Calvinists. Those Christians who deny the authority of the Roman Pontiff, and acknowledge the Patriarch of Constantinople as their chief ecclesiastic, are said to be of the Greek Church.
- 46. The peculiar characteristics of the Romish Church are the following:
- 1. The Romish Church asserts that the Scriptures alone are insufficient for their own interpretation, and require the aid of Tradition; that the Pope, as head of their church, is infallible, and has absolute authority in all matters of Faith and Worship.

2. It discourages and mostly prohibits the use of the Scriptures in the common language; utterly denies the right of private judgment to interpret and decide on matters of Fatth and Worship, and has always been an intolerant church.

3. It enjoins the cellbacy of the priests; maintains the doctrines of Transabstantiation, of the Invocation of the Virgin Mary and of the saints; Auricu-

substantiation, of the invocation of the virgin Mary and of the saints; auricular Confession, Purgatory, Absolution, and of seven Sacraments (namely, 1, Baptism, 2. Confirmation, 3. the Eucharist. 4. Penance, 5. Extreme Unction, 6. Holy Orders, 7. Matrimony); practises, if not enjoins, Image-worship, and claims the power of granting Indulgences, that is, exemptions from obligations, 4. Its Public Service is set forth in the Missal or Mass-Book, which requires a service of the control of the contr

splendid Ritual and numerous ceremonies calculated to dazzle the eyes of the multitude. (See Spain, art. 876, Italy, 419.)

47. The chief points of difference between the Greek and Roman Churches are the following:-

1. The Greek Church maintains that the Holy Ghost proceeds from the Father only. (John xv. 26.) .
2. It encourages the free circulation of the Scriptures, and considers them the

only Rule of Faith. It forbids any innovation on established doctrines

3. It is very tolerout; permits every nation to use its own Liturgy and in its own language. It observes Easter at a different time from the Romish Church.

. Though it venerates, it neither adores nor worships the Virgin Mary; it rejects all images, but permits pictures both in the churches and private houses it denies Purgatory, yet offers prayers for the dead that God would be merciful to them; it holds in reverence the tombs and relics of holy men.

to them; it holds in reverence the tembs and relics of holy men.

5. It demies the infallibility and rejects the authority of the Pope; forbids all
Penance, and grants no Indulgences; considers that there are only two
Sacraments (Baptism and the Lord's Supper); administers the Lord's Supper in
both kinds—bread and wine; and allows only a voluntary and private confession
to the priest before receiving communion.

6. It requires the Parish Priests to be married; observes many holy-days;
keeps four solemn fasts in the year; disallows organs in the Public Worship,
but permits lights before the altar, and practises many ceremonial observance,
of which preaching and the public reading of the Scriptures form only a very small

- 48. The Protestant or Reformed Religion raised its standard early in the 16th century, and made rapid progress, especially in the North of Europe. The great objects which it sought to accomplish are the following:-
- 1. To assert the right of sound Reason in determining from Scripture all matters respecting Faith, Practice, and Church Discipline, because this principle is enjoined by Christ himself (Luke xii. 56, 57), and his Apostles (1 Cor. x. 15, xi. 18, Acts xvii. 11, Rom. xiv. 5, 1 Pet. iii. 15); and, as Reason is God's gift to man, for the right use of which he is responsible, it is to be exercised in all our affairs, both in common cases as well as in important ones

To deny the Pope's infallibility or authority in matters of doctrine and discipline; to reject uncertien tradition as unsanctioned and unsafe; and rest Belief solely on the foundation of Scripture.

3. To maintain that only two Sacraments were ordained by Christ (Baptism and the Lord's Supper), and that men are justified by or through Faith in Jesus Christ alone (Rom. v. 9).

4. To encourage the study of the Scriptures; require nothing which is not sanctioned by them, and introduce a more spiritual and simple form of worship.

- sanctioned by them, and introduce a more spiritual and simple form of worship.

 5. To encourage the marriage of the clery; break up monastic institutions, and purge Christianity from the unscriptural and superstitious observances which had enveloped it during many ages of darkness.

 6. The preceding are the principles of the Church of England and of every other Protestant Orthodox Church, however much they may differ in Church Government. The Church of England says in her 6th Article: 'Holy Scripture containeth all things necessary to salvation; so that whatsoever is not read therein nor may be proved thereby, is not to be required of any man, that it should be believed as an Article of the Faith, '&c.
- LESSON 17 .- 49a. The doctrines of the Church of England, as set forth in the 89 Articles, are much the same as those of Calvin; but its discipline and form of Worship are different. The Church of England maintains a diversity of rank among its pastors, the chief of whom are called Bishops and Archbishops; whence this form of church government is termed Episcopacy, or Hierarchy. The Greek and Romish Churches have likewise bishops, &c. The Calvinists hold an equality of rank among the ministers of religion, whom they also call Presbyters; whence, in Scotland, because the church is governed by meetings called presbyteries (consisting of ministers and laymembers, termed Ruling Elders), the national religion is called Presbuterian.
 - b. That religion which is sanctioned by law, and its teachers

supported either by endowments or by public grants, is called the Established Religion or the Established Church. Those who differ from it are called Dissenters, Nonconformists, Dissidents, or Seceders. If such are allowed openly to profess their religion, they are said to be tolerated. Those who adhere to the doctrines, though not to the discipline of the Established Church of England are called Orthodox; those who do not, Heterodox. Thus, the Wesleyan Methodists, or followers of the late John Wesley (a clergyman of the Church of England), are orthodox; because, though observing a simpler mode of worship, they adhere to the doctrines of the Established Church, and have never formally withdrawn from it.

Soc. Those who assert that there is no authority in Scripture for a national established religion, but that each assembly should maintain its own ministers and manage its own affairs, are called Congregationalists or Independents. Those who deny the validity or efficacy of infant baptism are called Baptists or Anabaptists. The Arminians, so called from James Arminius, a Dutch divine who died A.D. 1609, deny the doctrine of predestination.

b. Those who differ from the established belief concerning the divinity of our Saviour, were, in ancient times, called Arians, from Arius, a priest of Alexandria, a native of Sienna in Laly, who died an In modern times, Sociatas, from Sociaus, a native of Sienna in Italy, who died in Poland A.D. 1604; the latter differing in several particulars from the fermer. Besides the above, there are several other denominations of Christians.

NOTE.—The differences of opinion with regard to Doctrines and Modes of Worship arise chiefly from the freedom of thought and action allowed under a constitutional government like that of England.

- **51.** The Jews, or descendants of the ancient Israelites, are a people scattered among all nations. They believe in the Old Testsment only, and expect a Saviour yet to come.
- **82.** Mahometass are those who believe in Mahomet, an impostor born at Meces in Arabia, A.D. 569; who assumed the character of a prophet in 611 a.D.; and fied to Medina in A.D. 622. His flight, called the *Hegira*, is the event from which Mahometanism commences. The dogmas of Mahomet are embodied in the Koran, or Sacred Book, written in Arabic. These inculcate the Unity of God, the immortality of the soul, predestination, a last judgment, and a sensual paradise hereafter. (See Turkey, Art. 430.)
- 83. Pagans are those who worship a number of false gods. Paganism assumes a variety of forms, the principal of which are the following:—
- a. Brahmanism, the religion of the Hindoos, acknowledges one Sepreme Being, with his representatives, Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, along with many inferior detities. The practice of this superstition leads to many gross and revolting rites and ceremonies.

b. Buddhism, the prevalent religion of China, Japan, and Further India, acknowledges several incarnations of deity, called Buddhs.

c. Magism, or the religion of Zoroaster, practises the worship of fire, as the symbol of the Divinity or Purity; it chiefly prevails in Persia.

d. Fetichism worships inanimate objects as detties, idols of wood and stone. Pagans often torture themselves, destroy that: ohldren, and practise the most cruel and wicked rites to please their gods or appease their anger.

Exercise.—If possible, 1 Draw a map, showing the extent of each religion. 2. Answer questions.

THE WORLD.

LESSOMS 18, 19.—54a. Modern Geographers divide the Globe into five grand divisions, namely: Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Oceania. Europe, Asia, and Africa, are sometimes called the Eastern Hemisphere or Old World. North and South America are sometimes called the Western Hemisphere or New World.

b. There are five great Oceans, namely: the Pacific, the Atlantic,

the Indian, the Arctic, and the Antarctic.

c. The Surface of the Earth contains about 196 millions of square miles, of

which about two-thirds are occupied by water.

d. The Natural Boundaries of the Earth are oceans, seas, rivers, and mountains. Civil or Political Boundaries are the arbitrary and changeable limits of adjacent states or kingdoms, depending on political and military events.

55. The habitable parts of the earth are calculated at 523. millions of square miles; and the number of inhabitants at 1,250 millions. Of these-

		Square miles.		Inhabitants.
Europe contains .		3,768,000		281,230,000
Asia, the continent		16,930,000		750,000,000?
Africa		12,000,000		100,000,000?
America (N. & S.)		15,167,000	•	80,000,000 ?
West Indies		86,550		3,917,000?
Oceania	•	5,500,000		26,600,000?

From this table it will be seen, that Asia is 41 times larger than Europe, America 41 times larger, and Africa 8 times larger.

- 56. EUROPE, as we see, is the smallest division of the globe; but, having received the light of Christianity, is the most civilised The climate, with the exception of the extreme and important. North, is in general temperate.
- 57. Asia was the cradle of the human race, from which have issued the various tribes and nations that have peopled the earth. In it occurred the most remarkable transactions that are recorded in Scripture history, and in it were founded the earliest kingdoms of the world. Civilisation and improvement, however, in the native states are in a very backward condition. The climate is exposed to greater degrees of heat and cold than that of Europe.
- 58. Africa has always been in a state of barbarism, with the exception of Egypt and ancient Carthage. This, perhaps, has arisen from its peculiar form, which renders the countries in the interior almost inaccessible to travellers. Lying mostly within the tropics, it has the hottest climate of all the continents.
- 59. America, frequently called the New World, from its having been discovered by Columbus in 1492, is, in the North, rapidly progressing in arts and civilisation. The countries in South America, however, are still little removed from barbarism. America exhibits nearly every variety of climate.
- 60. OCHANIA comprises four extensive groups of Islands; the 1st called Malaysia, situated in the Indian Archipelago, includes Borneo, Sumatra, Java, &c.; the 2nd called Melanesia, includes

New Guinea and the islands on the North and East of Queensland: the 3rd includes Australia, New Zealand, and the adjacent islands; and the 4th called Polynesia, or 'the many isles,' comprises the remaining numerous islands scattered in the Pacific Ocean.

Note to the Teacher.—Map drawing is recommended as a valuable auxiliary in acquiring a correct knowledge of the forms of countries and the position of places. The maps should contain fair and accurate outlines and boundaries, and the chief names; but highly finished drawings are not desirable. Two kinds of maps may be required: 1. Political maps, containing the countries, capitals, and other rivers, lakes, 1. Payerical maps, containing the outlines of the country, then the rivers, lakes, nountains, capes, &c.

Afterwards, Questions should be proposed on each Paragraph.

MODEL EXERCISE 1.—On Lesson 18.—1. Draw a map of Europe, Asia, and Africa, inserting only the countries.

2. Answer questions proposed on each paragraph from 54 to 60 inclusive.
Reservice on Lesson 18.—1. Draw a map of North and South America, inserting only

the countries.

2. Answer a second time questions proposed on the paragraphs from 54 to 60.

3. Point out the relative position of each country.

SUMMARY OF EUROPE.

- **LESSON 20.—61.** Boundaries.—Europe is bounded N. by the Arctic Ocean; E. by the Ural Mountains, the River Ural, and the Caspian Sea; S. by the Caucăsus Mountains, Black Sea, Sea of Marmora, the Archipelägo, and the Mediterranean; W. by the Atlantic Ocean.
- 62. Extent.—The length of Europe from E. to W. is about 3,300 miles; Breadth from N. to S. 2,400 miles; Arca, 3,768,000 square miles; Pop. 281,230,000.
- 63. Oceans, Seas, Gulfs, Straits.—The White Sea on the North of Russia; Straits of Waigatz between Russia and Nova Zembla; the Arctic Ocean; the Atlantic Ocean; Skager-Rack North of Denmark: Cattegat between Denmark and Sweden; the Sound (2) miles across) between Sweden and Zealand; Great Belt between Zealand and Fuhnen; Little Belt between Fuhnen and Jutland; the Baltic Sea (ar. 155,000 square miles) with its branches, the Gulfs of Riga, Finland, and Bothnia between Sweden, Russia, and Prussia; German Ocean (or North Sea) between Great Britain and the Continent; Straits of Dover (201 miles across) between England and France; English Channel between England and France; St. George's Channel and Irish Sea between Great Britain and Ireland; Bay of Biscay on the West of France; Straits of Gibraltar (13 miles across in the narrowest part) joining the Atlantic and the Mediterranean: the Mediterranean Sea (ar. 870,000 square miles) between Europe and Africa; Gulf of Lyons in the S. of France; Gulf of Genoa in the North-West of Italy; Straits of Bonifacio between Corsica and Sardinia; Straits of Messina between Italy and Sicily; Gulf of Taranto in the S. of Italy; Adriatic Sea or Gulf of Venice between Italy and Turkey; Archipel'ago between Greece and Asia; the Levant, forming the Eastern part of the Mediterranean; the Sea of Marmora between Turkey in Europe and Turkey in Asia; the Dardane'les (1 mile across, anc. Hellespont) joining the Archipelago and the Sea of Marmora; the Straits of Constantinople (mile across) joining the Sea of Marmora and the Black Sea; the Black Sea (ar. 180,000 square miles) between Russia and Turkey in Asia; the Straits of Caffa or Yenikale (4 miles across) joining the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof; Sea of Azof in the South of Russia.
- 64. Chief Islands.—In the Atlantic Ocean, near the North of Europe, are Iceland and the Faröe Isles, belonging to Denmark. More southerly are Great Britain and Ireland, to which belong the Shetland Isles, the Orkneys, the Hebrides or Western Isles, the Isles of Man, Anglesea, Scilly, Wight, and the Channel Islands (namely, Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark).

In the Baltic are Fuhnen, Zealand, Falster, Langland, Laaland, Moen, Bornholm, belonging to Denmark; Oland and Gothland to Sweden; Alsen, Femern, and Rugen to Prussia; Dago, Oesel, and

Aland to Russia.

In the Bay of Biscay are the Úshant (ang) Isles, Belle-Isle, Isles of Rhē and Oleron belonging to France.

In the Mediterranean are the Balčāric Isles (namely Iviça, Majorca, Minorca) belonging to Spain; Corsica to France; Sardinia, Elba, Sicily, and the Lipāri Islands to the Kingdom of Italy; Malta and Gōzo to England. In the Adriatic Sea are the Dalmatian Isles belonging to Austria. South of the Adriatic are the Ionian Isles (namely Corfu; Cerīgo, Zante, Cephalōnia, Santa Maura, Thiaki or Ithāca, and Paxo), which were ceded in 1863 by England to Greece. To the South of Greece is Crete or Candia belonging to Turkey. In the Levant are Rhodes and Cyprus, also belonging to Turkey. In the Archipelägo are Eubōsa (lately Negropont), Mitylēně, Scio, Samos, Cos, &c., belonging to Greece.

65a. Peninsulas.—Jutland, in Denmark; Spain and Portugal Morēa in Greece; and Crimēa, south of Russia.

b. Isthmuses, are those of Corinth and Perecop, the former joining

the Morea, the latter the Crimea.

c. Capes.—Nordkyn and North Cape, N. of Lapland; Nazs, South of Norway; Spurn-Head, north of the Humber; Lizard Point and Land's End in Cornwall; Cape Clear, south of Ireland; Cape La Hogue, north-west of France; Capes Ortegal and Finisterre (tare), north-west, and Trafalgar, south-west of Spain; Cape St. Vincent, south-west of Portugal; Cape Passaro, south of Sicily; Spartivento and Di Leuca, south of Italy; and Cape Matapán, south of the Morés in Greece.

EESSON 21.—66. Surface.—a. The surface of Europe is much diversified. Though its mountains do not reach that stupendous height, nor stretch in such unbroken chains, as those of Asia and America, yet we may clearly trace two highlands, the northern and the southern, and an intermediate lowland. The southern highland comprises the most elevated mountains of the continent, the Alps and the Pyrenēës, connected together by the low chain of the Cevennes. North of this range, the great European lowland commences and occupies the greater part of France, Belgium, Northern Germany, all Poland, and the greater part of Russia. In the extreme North of Europe, the mountainous character again prevails. The following are the most noted Mountains, with their respective heights:—

b. Mountains .- Dof-rine or Dov'refeld in Norway, 8,000 feet.

Feet.	Feet.
Ural Mountains N.E. of Russia 5,400	Gt. St. Bernard, in Switzerland 11,080
Carpathian, N.E. of Hungary . 8,468	Pyrenees, bet. Franceand Spain 11,168
Hāčmus or Balkan, in Turkey 8,500	Olym'pus, in Turkey . 6,500
The Alps, N. of Italy 15,200	Parnas'sus, in Greece 5.750
Aprennines, run down Italy . 7,000	Ben Nevis, in Scotland . 4,370
Mont Blanc, in Savoy 15,660	Ben Macdhui, in Scotland 4,860
St. Got/hard, in Switzerland . 10,600	Snowdon, in Wales 3,571

- c. The Volcanic Mountains are Vesūvius nr. Naples . 3,932 Etna, in Sicily . 10,870 Hecla, in Iceland 5,110
- d. The Plains.—The great European Lowland comprises four extensive Plains: 1. The Great Central Plains comprising Belgium, Holland, Denmark, North Germany, Poland, and the greater part

- of Russia. 2. The Plain of France, containing the North, the West, and part of the centre of France. 3. The Plain of Hungary, occupying the centre of that country. 4. The Plain of Lombardy in the north of Italy.
- 67a. Rivers.—Though Europe does not present the mighty rivers which characterise the greater continents, it is on the whole most commodiously watered. Almost every part of it enjoys the benefit of river communication; it is neither overspread by the dreary swamps of America, nor the sandy deserts which render uninhabitable so great a part of Asia and Africa. The following are the principal Rivers :-
- In Russia—The Volga (2,400 miles), Ural (1,040 m.), Don (1,020 m.), Dniëper (1,250 m.), Dniëster (700 m.), Petchora (900 m.), Dwina (750 m.), Duna (550 m.)
- In Prussia-Mem'el or Niemen (450 m.), Vistüla (650 m.), Oder (550 m.), Elbe
- In Pression—Mem'el of Niemen (490 m.), viscus (600 m.), viscus (600 m.), viscus (600 m.), viscus (600 m.), Rhine (760 m.)

 In France—Sèins (450 m.), Loire (570 m.), Garonné (350 m.), Rhone (490 m.)

 In Portugal—Tagus (550 m.), Doire (456 m.)

 In Italy—Po (440 m.), Arno (155 m.), Tiber (210 m.)

 In Austria and Turkey—The Dan'ube (1,800 m.)

 In Austria and Turkey—The Dan'ube (1,800 m.)

 Pariad Theorem (2000 m.) Savorom (2000 m.), Trent (180 m.), Great Ouse

- In Austra and Turkey—Ine Dairube (1,500 m.), Trent (180 m.), Great Ouse (150 m.), Yorks. Ouse (180 m.), Wye (120 m.), Humber (50 m.), Avon (98 m.), Avon (98 m.), Tweed (98 m.), Tweed (98 m.) In Scotland—Tay (110 m.), Forth (100 m.), Clyde (98 m.), Tweed (98 m.) In Ireland—Shannon (224 m.), Suir (100 m.), Barrow (100 m.), Blackwater
- (90 m.), 5 Lakes.—Lakes Ladoga (6,300 sq. m.), and Onega (8,300 sq. m.) in Russia; Wenner (2,000 sq. m.), and Weitter in Sweden; Genèva (390 sq. m.), Constance (230 sq. m.), and Neuchâtel' (115 sq. m.) in Switzerland.
- LESSON 22.—68. Climate.—Situated within the Temperate Zone (except a small part of Norway, Sweden, and Russia), its climate is more agreeable, and better adapted to the health and vigour of the human frame, than that of any other portion of the globe of equal extent.
- The Atlantic renders the countries on the West warmer but more moist than those are on the East; the Mediterranean, also, moderates the heat of the Southern countries, which otherwise, from their proximity to Africa, would sometimes be oppressive.
- 69. Soil.—The Soil of Europe does not indeed possess that luxuriance of vegetation which adorns the equatorial regions of Asia and America; but the most substantial and agreeable articles of human diet are nowhere produced on so great a scale, or in such high perfection. Grain, of one description or other, is raised over its whole surface, excepting its extreme North; and wines, throughout all its southern regions. The cultivation of the soil is carried on with much greater diligence in Europe than in the other continents, except, perhaps, in China and Japan; while in science, skill. and the extent of capital employed upon it, European Agriculture is quite unrivalled.
- 70a. Minerals.—Europe abounds most in Minerals of a useful kind. Iron, coal, salt, copper, lead, tin, zinc, cobalt, are found in perhaps greater abundance here than in any other region of similar extent. There are gold mines in Hungary and Russia;

silver is found in several parts of Germany, Hungary, and Sweden; mercury at Almaden in Spain and at Idria in the Austrian Empire; marble in Italy and Greece; and granite, slate, and porcelain clay in various parts.

The following Table shows-1st, the European countries in which the common Minerals most abound; and 2nd, the countries in every quarter in which the precious Stones and Metals most abound:—

1. Common minerals	Abundant in England, Sweden,	2. Precions Metals and Stones	Abundant in
1. Iron (greyish) .	Belgium, &c. England, Sweden,	1. Gold (yellow)	Mexico, S. Ameri- ca, and Russia.
2. Copper (reddish)	&c. England, Scotland,	2. Silver (white)	Mexico, S. Ameri-
3, Lead (grey)	Germany, France,	3. Diamond(various)	Brazil, Hindostan, and S. Africa.
4. Coal (black)	England, Scotland, Belgium, Ger-	4. Topaz (yellowish) 5. Emerald (green)	Urai Mis., India. Peru, Brazil.
5. Tin (white)	many, &c. England, Saxony.	6. Ruby (red) 7. Agate (various) .	India, S. America. Sicily, Saxony.
6. Salt (white)	Poland, England, Spain, &c.	8. Jasper (various) . 9. Garnet (crimson)	Spain, Siberia. Bohemia.
 Slate (various) Gyrsum or Plas-)		
(white)	France, England.		
9. Marble (various) 10. Flint (smoke-			
grey)	_	1	

71. Zoology, &c.—a. Europe is chiefly rich in the useful and domestic animals, and, in a great measure, is exempt from the noxious species so common to Africa and Asia. The horse, cow, sheen goat, ass, dog, and pig, are common to nearly every country. The camel is found near the Black Sea, and the rein-deer in the regions of the North. The wild animals are hares, foxes, rabbits, deer, wild boars, wolves, and bears. There are several birds of prey, as the eagle, vulture, kite, hawk, and falcon. The seas abound with fish.

b. The Vegetable Products are enumerated under each country.

LESSON 23.—72. Races of People.—The people of Europe are chiefly divided into four great races, differing in language, political situation, and habits of life. These are—1st. The sclavonian who occupy the Eastern region of Europe; namely, Russia, Poland, Lithuania, and Croatia. 2nd. The Teutonic, occupying the centre and North of Europe; as Germany, Holland, Belgium, Denmark, Great Britain, Norway, and Sweden. 3rd. The Romish, principally occupying France, Italy, Spain, and Portugal. 4th. The Celtic who have peopled great part of Ireland, the Highlands of Scotland, Wales, Brittany in France, and the north of Spain. 5th. To the above may be added the Magyars, the dominant people of Hungary.

73. Languages.—The Languages of Europe may be ranged under the following classes:—1. The Sclavosic, embracing the Russian, Polish, Bohemian, Servian, Wendish, and Croatish languages. 2. The Teutonic, comprising the German, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and English languages. 3. The Graeco-Latin, comprising the modern Greek, Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Moldavian, and Walleyton knowners. and Wallachian languages. 4. The Cellic, comprising the Gaelic, free or Irish, and Welsh languages, and the Armorican in Brittany. 5. The Ouralium, comprising the Hungarian, Finnish, and Esthonian languages, and perhaps, the Turkish. 6. Besides the preceding, there is the Basque, spoken in the Pyrenean provinces of France and Spain.

74. Civilisation and Industrial Arts.—It may be truly asserted

that the least civilised state of Europe is more advanced in all that respects mental cultivation and improvement in the Arts than the most improved native state in any other part of the world. From this continent have issued the various colonies which are occupying and governing the extensive regions of America and Australia. Commerce, Manufactures, and Agriculture, as well as the Arts and Sciences, are pursued in different degrees by all the nations in Europe. These, while affording employment and support to the inhabitants, are among the chief means of extending the blessings of civilisation to the most distant lands.

- 75. Government.—The Political State of Europe is peculiarly advantageous to the inhabitants. In other quarters either a turbulent democracy prevails, or vast empires are subjected to the sway of a single despot. It is in this continent only that the secret has been found of establishing a regular and Constitutional Liberty, in which the extremes of tyranny and democracy are equally avoided. Even the absolute monarchies are generally administered with comparative mildness according to legal forms, which afford to the bulk of the people a tolerable security of person and property.
- 76. Religion.—The Religion of Europe is almost entirely Chris-The only exceptions are a few pagans in the north, the Mahometans in Turkey, and the Jews, who are nowhere fully identified with the body of the people. The Christians of Europe are divided into three great churches:-1, the Greek; 2, the Roman Catholic: and 3. the Protestant.
- 1. The Greek or Eastern Church, which was that of the Constantinopolitan Empire, separated from the Romish or Western Church about 858 A.D. Various attempts have subsequently been made to re-unite the churches, but without success. It is the established religion of Russia, Roumania, Greece, Servia, and Montenegro, and has many adherents in Hungary and the adjacent districts.

2. The Roman Catholic Religion which reigned so long with supreme sway over Europe, still nominally embraces a numerical majority of its people. Though reduced, it predominates in France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Austria, and is almost exclusive in Belgium. Many of the smaller states of Germany, and several of the cantons of Switzerland adhere to it. The

Germany, and several of the cantons of Switzeriand agnere to it. Ine greater part of Ireland and of Poland are attached to it.

3. The Protestant or Reformed Religion. The term Protestant was assumed in the first instance by Luther and his adherents, who in 1528 solemnly protested against an usquist decree of the Diet held at Spires in Germany, which forbead the spread of the reformed principles of religion. The denomination of Protestant has from that time been applied to all those Christians who have separated from the Church of Rome. The Protestant Religion is established in Great Britain, Holland, Prussia and the north of Germany, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden and Investia in several of the Swiss Cantons. (See Art. 48.) and Sweden, and prevails in several of the Swiss Cantons. (See Art. 48.)

LESSON 24.-77. THE COUNTRIES AND CAPITALS OF EUROPE.

Countries.	Capitals.	Countries.	Capitals.
The United Kingdom of Great Britain an		a. North German confed	Berlin
1. a. England and	London	b. South German confed	Munich
Wales		12. Switzerland	
b. Scotland		13. Spain	
c. Ireland	Dublin	14. Portugal	Lisbon
2. France	Brussels	15. Italy, in 1871	Rome, Florence
	Copenhagen	16. Turkey	Constanti- nople
6. Sweden	, Stockholm	Turkish Trib. Prov.	•
7. Norway	. Christiana	a. Roumania	Bucharest
8. Russia		17. b. Servia	
9. {Austro-Hungarian Empire 10. Prussia		c. Montenegro 18. Greece	Zettinie

Note.—The First-rate European Powers are-1. Great Britain; 2. France; 3. Russia; 4. Prussia; 5. Austria.
Second-rate Powers—1. Italy; 2. Spain; 3. Turkey.

Third-rate—1. Holland; 2. Sweden and Norway; 8. Belgium; 4. Portugal; 5. Denmark; 6. Switzerland.

MODEL EXERCISES.

Ex. on Lesson 20.—1. Carefully Read, with due attention to the proper Pronunciation of Words, the paragraphs from 61 to 65 inclusive.

2. Draw on Outline May of Europe, inserting the coast line, the oceans, seas, &c.,

2. Drift on California and Of Russes, insecting and Comer into, and Cooling and Capes, and Islands.

3. Point out the above on the Map, and state to what country the Islands respectively belong. Name the Islands in the Atlantic Ocean, the Baltic, the Mediterraneau,

Ex. on Lesson 21.—1. Either Draw a second Map, or fill up the former by inserting the mountains, plains, and rivers.

2. Describe the Surface of Europe. Name and Point out the Mountains, Plains, and

Rivers.

3. Name the source and course of the Wolga, Elbe, Dannhe, Scine, &c.
4. Name the chief towns on the Thames, Scine, Biro, Rhine, &c.
5. Name the Rivers emptying themselves into the Batte, Mediterranean, &c.

Ex. on Lesson 22.—Describe the Climate of Europe, the Soil, the Minerals, Zoology. Name the countries producing coals, iron, lead, tin, &c.

Ex. on Lesson 23.-1. Name the different Baces of people occupying Europe; state the

respective countries of these.

2. Name the classes of Languages; name their branches.

3. Describe the Civilization and Industrial Arts; the Government; the Religion.

What countries adhere to the Greek Church? the Roman Catholic? the Protestant?

Ex. on Lesson 24.—1. Draw a Map of Europe, inserting the Countries, Capitals, Mountains, and Rivers. 2. Point out these on the Map.

Hote.—To avoid swelling the volume no additional Questions will be inserted.

LESSONS 25, 26.—GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

78a. THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND consists of two large islands and many smaller ones. The total area is 121,517 sq. miles, and pop. in 1871 = 31,817,108.

b. Great Britain consists of England and Wales (sometimes called South Britain), and Scotland (or North Britain). The Area of these with the islands is 89,000 sq. miles.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

79a. Physical.—England including Wales is bounded on the North by Scotland; Eust by the German Ocean; South by the English Channel; and West by the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel. The Length from Berwick to the Isle of Wight is 360 miles. Breadth from North Foreland in Kent to Land's End in Cornwall is 320 miles, but the av. br. is less than 200 miles. The Area of England is 50,922 sq. miles; of Wales 7,398 sq. miles; total 58,320 sq. miles. The pop. of England in 1871 was 21,487,688; of Wales 1,216,420; of Man, Jersey, Guernsey, &c., 144,430; of the Army and Navy abroad 207,193; Total 23,055,736. Cap. London.

- b. England means the land of the Angli, a branch of the Saxons from Holstein and Sleawick. Welsh was a term applied to the British by the old Saxons to denote allens or foreigners. The native name of the Welsh is Cymry, which appears in the forms of Cambria, Cumberland.
- c. Coasts.—The Coasts on the West are generally bolder, more elevated and indented than on the East. About two thirds of the Southern coast are lined with cliffs. The East coast, N. of Flamborough, is, in general, lined with bold and elevated cliffs; South of that point, the coast is, in general, low.
- d. Capes on the East.—Flamborough Head (214 ft. high), Spurn Head, a low sand-bank, in Yorkshire; Lowestoft Ness, low sandbank, in Suffolk; the Naze (100 ft.) in Essex; North Foreland (200 ft.), South Foreland (400 ft.), and Dungeness, low with a lighthouse, in Kent. On the South, Beachy Head (564 ft.) and Selsey Bill in Sussex; St. Catherine's Point and the Needles S. of the Isle of Wight; St. Alban's Head (344 ft.) and Portland Bill (30 ft.) in Dorset; Start Point and Bolt Head (430 ft.) in Devon; Lizard Point (224 ft.) and Land's End (60 ft.) in Cornwall. On the West, Hartland Point in Devon; Worm's Head in Glamorgan; St. Goven's Head and St. David's Head in Pembroke; Braich-y-Pwll and Great Orme's Head (673 ft.) in Caernarvon; Point of Aire in Flint; Formby Pt. in Lancashire; St. Bee's Head (333 ft.) in Cumberland.

LESSON 27.—80a. Scas, Bays, Inlets, &c.—On the East are Mouth of the Tees, the Humber, the Wash, and Mouth of the Thames, connected with the German Ocean. The Straits of Dover between England and France. On the South, Portsmouth Harbour, Southampton Water, the Channel between the Isle of Wight and Hampshire (the East part is called Spithead, the West part the

Solent), Weymouth Bay, Tor Bay, Plymouth Sound, Falmouth Harbour, and Mount's Bay, all connected with the English Channel. On the West are Barnstaple, Swansea, and Caermarthen Bays, connected with the Bristol Channel. Next are Milford Haven, St. Bride's Bay, and Cardigan Bay, connected with St. George's Channel. The Menai Strait (crossed by a suspension bridge) separates Anglesea from the mainland. The estuaries of the Dee, Mersey, and Ribble, Morecombe Bay and Solway Frith, are connected with the Irish Sea.

- b. Depth of the Sea.—Of the seas surrounding Britain, the German Ocean is the shallowest, as it contains many sand-banks; its depth at the distance of 40 miles from the land is only 130 ft. The English Channel varies from 150 ft. to 300 ft. in depth; the Irish Sea varies from 200 ft. to 400 ft. Tides.—The Tides on the West coast rise higher and more rapidly than those on the East and South coasts, as the estuaries on the West have their openings directed towards the great rule pout research, as the estuaties in the West have their openings directed towards the great rided Ware of the Atlantic. The marrower the opening, too, the greater and more rapid the rise; thus, the tide on the West, at the Mouth of the Severer, rises to 60 ft.; at Millford Haven to 36 ft.; on the South, at Brighton to only 21 ft., at Portsmouth to 17 ft.; on the East, at the Mouth of the Thames to 19 ft., at the Wash to 23 ft.
- c. Harbours, Sand-Banks, &c.—The most important and capacious Harbours in the South are Portsmouth Harbour, Plymouth Sound, Falmouth Harbour, and Milford Haven
- d. The principal Sand-banks are—1. Dogger-Bank, occupying the centre of the German Ocean between England and Denmark, the northern extension of which is called Fisher-Bank. 2. Maplin-Sands, East of Essex. 3. Goodwin-Sands East of Kent. There are several sand-banks at the mouth of the
- e. Many Lighthouses are fixed along the coast to warn sailors of dangerous rocks or shallows; of these Eddystone Lighthouse, 9 miles from Plymouth Sound, is the most famous.
- f. Of Roadsteads, the following are the principal:—Yarmouth Roads off the coast of Norfolk; the Downs, between Goodwin Sands and Kent; Spithead and the Solent between the Isle of Wight and Hampshire.
- 81. Islands.—Of the numerous Islands adjacent to or belonging to England, the following are the principal:-

Holy Island or Landisfarn, Fern Island and Coquet on the E. of Northumberand; Canvey, Foundayard, even shall and could on the first and Sheppey adjoining Kent. Portsea, Hayling, Thorney Isle, and the Isle of Wight on the S. of Hampshire. Eddystone Rock on which the celebrated lighthouse is built, miles from Flymouth Sound. The Scilly Isles, in number 145, but only 6 inhabited, of which St. Mary's is the largest, lie 30 miles to the S. W. of Land's

inhabited, of which St. Mary's is the largest, lie 30 miles to the S. W. of Land's End. Tin was anciently procured from these islands. Lundy-Isle, 2½ miles in length on the N. W. of Devon, is a mass of granite rising 200 ft. above the sea. The Isle of Anglesca, separated from the mainland by the Menai Stratt, forms one of the Welsh counties. Holy Island, on which the town of Holyhead is statusted, is connected with Anglesca by two embankments.

The Isle of Mum in the Irish Sea, 30 miles by average 10 miles, Area 220 sq. miles, is mountainous in the interior, the highest peak is Snaefell 2,004 ft. The people speak the Manx, a dialect of the Celtic, and have their own parlisment. The towns are Douglas, the largest, Castleton (the residence of the governor), Ransey and Peel. The island forms the bishoprio of Sodor and Mans. This island once possessed a fendal sovereignty, formerly under the Earls of Derby, and next under the Dukes of Athol, of whom the English government purchased the sovereignty in 1829. government purchased the sovereignty in 1806, and the remaining rights in 1829.

government purchased the sovereignty in 1805, and the remaining rights in 1829. The Channel or Norman Islands, which have been annexed to the English crown since the time of William the 1st, lie off the coast of France, but are officially connected with Hampshire and the diocese of Winchester. The climate is healthy and the soil fertile. The islands are Jersey, 11 miles by 5 miles, contains 28,700 acres, chief town St. Helier. Guernsey, 9 miles by 5 miles, contains 15,500 acres; St. Peter's is the only town. Alderney contains 1,900 acres, and is noted for its breed of cows. Sark contains 1,400 acres. Besides these, there are two small islets adjacent—Herm and Jethou. The inhabitants of the Channel Islands are Protestants, speak a French patois, and have their own little parliament.

Emssow 28.—82a. Surface.—The Surface of the interior of England is agreeably diversified, the greater portion consisting either of moderate elevations, clothed with almost perpetual verdure, or of extensive table lands and plains. The north-west and south-west are hilly. Wales is, in general, mountainous, intersected with elevated valleys and plains.

b. The chief Mountain Ranges and Groups are the following:-The Cheviot Hills between England and Scotland, the highest point 2.684 ft. The Cumbrian Mountains in Cumberland, Westmoreland, &c., of which the highest peaks are Scaw-fell, 3,166 ft. (the highest point in England); Helvellyn 3,055 ft.; Skiddaw, 3,022 ft. These mountains are in general steep rugged, and well wooded, and encircle the well-known lakes of Cumberland. The Pennine Chain extends from the Cheviots to the Peak district in Derbyshire. The hills of this range form a succession of high moorlands, bleak and treeless, with deep valleys, and some elevated summits, of which the principal are Cross-fell in Cumberland, 2,900 ft; Whernside 2,384 ft.; Ingleborough 2,361 ft., and Pennygent 2,270 ft. in Yorkshire. The Cambrian Group includes all the Welsh mountains, of which the principal are Snowdon, 3,571 ft.; Cader Idris, 2,914 ft.; Plinlimmon, 2,463 ft.; Brecknock Beacon, 2,862 ft. The Devonian Range extends through Cornwall, Devonshire, and part of Somerset. The principal heights are Yes-Tor, 2,050 ft.; Cawsand Beacon, 1,792 ft., and Rippon Tor, 1,549 ft. on Dartmoor; Brown-Willy, 1,368 ft. in Cornwall; and Dunkerry Beacon, 1,770 ft. on Exmoor, Somer-

Other less important groups or heights are—North York Moors; the Yorkshire Wolds; the Lincolnshire Wolds; the East Anglian Heights in Norfolk, branches of which are the Gogmagog Hills in Cambridge, and the Chiltern Hills in Bucks. The North Downs run through Hampshire, Surrey, and N. Kent. The South Downs run parallel to these. The Malvern Hills are in Worcester; the Cotswold in Gloucester; and the Mendip in Somerset.

c. Plaini.—The Cumbrian Plain lies along the river Eden. The Plain of Fort, the largest in England, extends from the Tees to the Don, and from the Pennine Range on the West to the Wolds on the East. The Cheshire Plain includes Cheshire and S. Lancashire. The Central Plain includes portions of the Midland Counties, Warwick, Leicester, Sc. The Eastern Plain includes parts of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex. Salisbury Plain is an elevated tract, extending 20 miles N. of Salisbury. The Valley of the Severn extends a few miles on each side of that river. The Weald, so called from the Saxon Weald, a wood or forest, lies between the N. and S. Downs.

d. Fens.—The Fen District extends inland from the Wash, and occupies portions of S. Lincoln (called Holland), the Isle of Ely in Cambridge, and parts of Huntingdon and Norfolk. In this district formerly stood the abbeys of Ely, Croyland, Thorney, and Ramsey. Great part of this district was drained, partly by Francis Earl of Bedford in 1634, and partly by his son William, and hence called the Bedford Level. The whole is intersected by the Nen, Cam, Ouse, and Welland rivers. Holderness is the low level land in East Yorkshire, between the river Hull and the German Ocean.

e. Rivers.—The principal rivers on the East Coast flowing into the German Ocean are, the Tweed, 96 m.; Tyne, 73 m.; Wear, 70 m.; Tees, 85 m.; Yorkshire Ouse, 135 m.; Trent, 148 m.; the Humber, 42 m. (The Ouse is formed by the junction of the Swale and Ure; afterwards it receives the Nidd, Wharfe, Derwent, Aire, and Don; the junction of the Ouse and Trent forms the Humber.) The Witham, 89 m.; Welland, 72 m.; Nen, 99 m.; Great Ouse, 166 m.; Yare, 70 m.; Orwell, Stour in Essex; the Thames, 215 m.; Medway, 60 m.; Stour in Kent.—Rivers in the

South flowing into the English Channel: Avon of Salisbury; Stour in Hampshire; Exe and Tamar. On the West, the principal are Parret, 40 m.; Bristol Avon, 75 m.; Warwick Avon, 90 m.; Usk, 70 m.; Wye, 130 m.; and Severn, 210 m., flowing into the Bristol Channel; the Towy, 67 m. into Caermarthen Bay; Teify, 70 m. into Cardigan Bay; the Dee, 93 m.; Mersey, 68 m.; Ribble, 60 m., flow into the Irish Sea; and the Eden, 80 m., into Solway Frith.

f. Lakes.—The English lakes lie amid the Cumbrian mountains; the principal are Windermere, 10½ m. by 1 m.; Ulleswater, 8 m. by ½ m.; Coniston, 5½ m. by ½ m. The following are smaller. Bassenthwaite, Wastwater, Derwentwater, Crummock, and several others. Whittlesea Mere in Huntingdon has been drained; lakes Bala and Brecknock are in Wales.

LESSON 29.—83a. Climate. The Climate of England, though moist and variable is healthy; cooler in summer and warmer in winter than places in the same latitude on the continent.

5. The West part of England is warmer but more moist than the East, having rain more or less for about 200 days in the year, while the East coast has rain only about 180 days. The West is also less exposed than the East to the piercing cold East Winds which are most frequent from Jan. to May inclusive. The westerly winds, which are warm, and frequently accompanied with moisture, prevail most from June to Dec. inclusive. The prevalence of North East Winds in spring forms the great drawback in the climate of Great Britain, as they are injurious to vegetation and trying to man. In the South West Counties the climate is so mild that the myrtie flourishes in the open air all the year round; but, on the other hand, so moist that several fruits will not ripen there which ripen further North. The Climate of Wales is colder and more humid than that of England under the same parallels.

a. The average annual Rainfall on the West Coast is 47 inches, on the East 29 inches, of the whole kingdom about 34 inches. The following Table shows the mean of Winter and Summer Temperature, and Rainfall at the undermentioned places:—

			rature Sum.	Rainfall	1		Tempe Wint.	rature Sum.	Rainfall
Scarborough	•	42	60	23	Bristol .	٠	40	64	30
York London .	:	36 89	63 62	23 21	Liverpool Whitehaven	:	41 39	61 59	85 52

34a. Soil.—The Soil of England differs almost in every county; yet, in general, it is either naturally fertile, or has been rendered so by cultivation.

b. Forests.—Of the once extensive Forests very few remain. The following are the principal:—New Forest (67,000 acres) in Hampshire; Dean Forest (23,000 acres) in Gloucester; Windsor Forest in Berkshire; Epping Forest in Basex; Sherwood Forest in Nottingham. There are others which, though retaining the name of Forest, are now thinly covered with trees, and in some instances cleared of them; as the Forest of Arden in Warwick; Enfield Chase in Middlesex. Of Moors, there are in the North several extensive ones.

c. Minerals.—England is rich in the useful minerals. Tin is found in Cornwall; tron in various parts; lead in Yorkshire, Derbyshire, Somerset, &c.; silver is sometimes extracted from the ore of lead; copper is found in Anglesea, Staffordshire, &c.; tinc in Cornwall and Derbyshire; marble in Pevonshire, &c.; freestone in various parts; rock-all in Cheshire; dum in various parts; fuller's earth in Berkshire; alabaster in Derbyshire; and cool in Northumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, Lancashire, Nottingham, Staffordshire, Warwick, and several central counties; in Flint in North Wales; and in Glamorgan and Pembroke in S. Wales.

d. Wild Animals.—Since the extirpation of the wolf, the largest wild animals are the fox and the wild cat. The principal birds of prey are the great eggle, now almost extinct, the falon, and several kinds of hauks. Of the repiles found in England, the viper alone is venomous, The rivers and seas of England abound with a great variety of fish.

LESSON 30.—POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

85. England contains 40 counties; Wales 12 counties, namely:

ENGLAND6 Northern Counties.							
Counties.	County Towns.	Counties.	County Towns.				
 Northumberland Durham Yorkshire 	. Durham	4. Cumberland 5. Westmoreland 6. Lancashire	Appleby				
5 Eastern Counties.							
8. Norfolk	. Lincoln . Norwich . Ipswich	10. Essex					
	6 Southern	Counties.					
12. Surrey	. Lewes		Dorchester Exeter Bodmin				
	7 Western	Counties.					
18. Somerset	. Gloucester	22. Hërëford					
	16 Midland	Counties.					
25. Derbyshire	Oakham Leicester Stafford Worcester Warwick	34. Cämbridge 35. Bedford 36. Buckingham 37. Oxford 38. Berkshire 39. Hertfordshire	Huntingdon Cambridge Bedford Aylæbury Oxford Bæding Hertford London				
WALES,—6 Counties in North Wales.							
1. Anglesea 2. Flint	Beaumaris Mold Denbigh	4. Caernarvon 5. Merioneth 6. Montgomery					

LESSON 31.-INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS.

6 Counties in South Wales.

86a. Agriculture is diligently pursued throughout the country, and, in general, has attained great excellence. The chief Products are wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, turnips, peas, beans, and grass; rye and buck-wheat are only partially cultivated; the ordinary garden fruits and vegetables are abundant; hops are cultivated chiefly in Kent, Farnham in Surrey, and Herefordshire. Cattle-rearing forms another important branch of rural industry. Much attention is paid in improving the breeds of horses, horned cattle, s'eep, and pigs; of these and poultry there are great numbers in e ery part.

- b. The Western districts being more moist than the Eastern are better adapted for pasturage than for tillage, and the Eastern for tillage. Horticulture is pursued with great assiduity and success in every part of the country.
- **87.** Manufactures.—England is admirably adapted for excelling as a manufacturing and commercial country; from its insular situation in affording numerous seaports; from the ingenious and persevering character of its inhabitants; from its possession of great mines of coal, iron, and other minerals; and from the extensive naval force by which its commerce and colonies are protected.
- a. The Manufactures are the most extensive in the world, comprising every useful article; and, with mining operations, employing more individuals than agriculture and cattle-rearing. The Staple or leading manufactures are cotton, woollen, worsted, linen, and hempen goods; next to these are hardware, machinery, glass, porcelain, earthenware, leather, silk, chemicals, paper, ale, porter, spirits, and ship-building. Coal, lead, tin, and iron mines, with stone quarries and brick making, also employ very many people.

b. Of the Cotton Manufacture, the chief seat is Lancashire. Some smaller concerns are in Cheshire, Yorkshire, and Derbyshire. The following are the principal towns employed:—Manchester and Salford, Blackburn. Bolton, Bury, Chorley, Preston, Wigan, Oldham, Rochdale, Ashton-under-Line, and Stockport.

The Woollen Manufacture is chiefly carried on in the West Riding of Yorkshire, in Wiltshire, Gloucester, and Somerset. The following are the principal towns occupied in this branch:—Leeds, Huddersfield, Hallfax, Wakefield, Bradford in Yorks., with many populous villages; Trowbridge and Bradford in Wilts; Frome in Somersetshire, and Stroud in Gloucestershire. At Dewsbury and Batley are large shoddy mills, in which old woollen rags are torn to pieces and respun.

Flannels are made chiefly at Rochdale and Salisbury. Carpets at Kidder-minster; Axminster, Wilton, and Halifax. Blankets at Heckmondwike in Yorks., and Wilton in Wilts. Stuffs and Worsted goods in Bradford, Yorks., and Norwich; and Worsted Stockings in Leicester.

The Linen Manufacture is seated chiefly in Yorkshire, Lancashire, Shropshire, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Durham. For Silk goods, the chief places are Spitalfields in London, Manchester, Macclessfield, and Leeds.

c. The Hardware Manufacture forms another important branch, and com-

prises a great variety of articles. The more ponderous are wrought in Staffordshire; at Coalbrook Dale in Shropshire; at Low Moor, and Bowling near

Bradford, Yorks, &c. Cuttery and the finer articles are made chiefy in Birmingham and Sheffield. Fire-arms, needles, &c., are made in London, Birmingham, &c. Watch and clock work in London, Coventry, and Lancashire. d. Miscellaneous Articles.—Lace, stockings, and hosiery are chiefly made in Nottlingham, Leicester, and Worcester. Tanning is carried on in many places. The Boot and Shoe Trade has its principal seats in Northampton, Stafford, and London. The Potteries have their chief seat in N. W. Staffordshire. Porclain is also made in Worsetter Deby. Locale in Clause and and proceed in Worsetter Deby. Locale in Clause are proportion. London. The Folleries have their chief seat in N. W. Stanfordshire. Forelain is also made in Worcester, Derby, Leeds, &c. Glass is extensively made in Newcastle, South Shields, St. Helen's, and Castleford near Leeds. Paper is made in Kent, Hertfordshire, Lancashire, &c. Sugar refineries are established in London, Hull, Liverpool, Bristol, &c. Ale, porter, and spirits in London, Burton-on-Trent, and many other places. Cabinet goods in London, Liverpool, and other places.

Ship building is another important branch which is extensively carried on

Ship building is another important branch which is extensively carried on tooth in the Government naval yards and in private dockyards. The chief Naval Dockyards are at Portsmouth, Plymouth, Chatham, Sheerness, and Milford. The principal private dockyards are in London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, Newcastle, Sunderland, Yarmouth, Southampton, &c. Coal, iron, in, and lead mines employ many thousands of persons. In 18:0 the number of Coal-mines in operation was 3,000; the produce was 34,000,000 of tons yearly. Coal and iron, indeed, may be said to form the great source of England's wealth, affording cheapness of fuel and of the most useful implements. implements.

LESSON 32 .- 88. The Commerce of Britain is very extensive; her ships traverse every sea, and her goods are found in every market in the world.

- a. The Exports consist almost entirely of manufactured goods, such as cotton, woollen, linen, and worsted goods; machinery, cutlery, porcelain, arms, shoes, leather, ales, porter, citching, paper, &c. The value of these to Foreign Countries and our own Colonies amounted in 1888 to 227,778,0001. The Imports comprise chiefly the raw products of other countries, such as cotton (which forms the most important article), next wool, flax, hemp, silk, tea, sugar, coffee, molasses, hides, skins, timber, wines, oils, tallow, &c.; the total value of which from foreign countries and our own colonies amounted in 1868 to 294,693,000L
 - b. The Chief Commercial Ports in England are-
 - 4. Hull 5. Newcastle-on-Tyne 6. Sunderland London 7. Southampton 9. Hartlepool 2. Liverpool 3. Bristol 8. Stockton 10. Cardiff
- c. Canals.—For facilitating commercial intercourse between the different towns in the interior, a great number of navigable Canals have been cut in various parts of England. The principal of these are the Bridgewater Canal from Manchester, executed by the celebrated Brindley; the Grand Trank or Staffordshire Canal; the Grand Junction, extending from Brentford to Braunston in Northamptonshire, and the Leeds and Liverpool Canal.

 4. Rathways.—Within the last few years a material change has been effected in the mode of conveyance by the extensive introduction of Railroads, traversed by carriages, of which steam is the locomotive power. Railways were, at first, used only on a small scale, chieffy in the coal mines round Newcastle, for conveying the mineral from the interior to the surface, and thence to the blace of shipping. The first c. Canals.-For facilitating commercial intercourse between the different towns in
- ral from the interior to the surface, and thence to the place of shipping. The first important passenger Railway was that between Manchester and Liverpool, which was opened in 1830. Since that time many other railways have been completed. principal Railways are the following :-
 - 3. Midland
- Great Northern.
 Lond, and N. Western.
 Lancash, and Yorks.
 Lond, Chat, and Dover. North Eastern.
 Great Eastern.
 Manc. Shef. and Lincoln. 6. Great Western. 9. Lond. and Brighton. 12. Lond. and S. Eastern. 11. Lond. and S. West.
- e. The Electric Telegraph, the wire of which is placed along the principal lines of Railway, is a recently introduced and important medium for most rapidly and cheaply transmitting information to distant parts of the country.

LESSON 33 .- SOCIAL COMDITION.

89. Government. a. - The Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is a limited hereditary Monarchy, consisting of King or Queen Regnant, Lords, and Commons.

The King (or Queen Regnant) is considered the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. His person is considered sacred, and himself is held incapable of doing wrong, the law taking cognizance, when an unlawful act is done, only of the minister instrumental in that act. Though the king by himself can make no new laws, nor extend his own prerogative, nor raise new taxes, nor act in opposition to any of the laws; yet he has the power to make war or peace, to assemble or dissolve parliament, and ratify all its acts by his assent. He appoints to all civil and military authorities, as well as dignitaries of the church, and can increase the number of peers at pleasure by creating new ones. Though the succession to the throne is hereditary, the right of inheritance may be limited by act of Parliament. By the Coronation Oath, the King is bound to be of the Protestant Established Church, to govern according to the laws of the Realm, and to maintain inviolate the Protestant Religion, with all the rights and privileges of the church.

b. The Legislative Power, or that which enacts laws, and enlarges, alters, or repeals those existing, resides in the King and Parliament. The Parliament consists of two houses, an upper or House of Lords, and a lower or House of Commons.

The House of Lords consists of Lords Spiritual and Lords Temporal. The Lords Spiritual (who sit merely by virtue of their office) are two English Archbishops and twenty-four Bishops (and till Aug. 1869, 4 Bishops for Ireland). The Lords Temporal comprise the Peers of the Realm. Of these, some sit by hereditary right, as do all ancient peers; some by creation by patent, as do all the new ones; others (since the union with Scotland and Ireland) by election, either merely for the duration of a Parliament, as do the sixteen peers who represent the Scotlan nobility; or for life, as do the twenty-eight peers who represent the Irish nobility. The Lords can vote by proxy. In 1869 the House of Lords consisted of 464 members.

The House of Commons or the Lower House consists of Knights of the shire or representatives of counties; of citizens or representatives of cities; and of burgesses or representatives of boroughs, all of whom sit and vote together. The House of Commons possesses the sole right of regulating the collection and distribution of the public money, it being a recognised principle that the people shall not be taxed but by their own consent through their representatives. The Commons cannot vote by proxy. Before any proposed measure, or Bill as it is usually termed, can become the law of the land, it must be read thrice in the House of Commons, and afterwards, thrice in the House of Lords, obtaining a majority of votes on each reading; and, finally, must receive the royal assent. A rejected Bill cannot be introduced again during the same Session. In 1869, the House of Commons numbered 658 members; namely, 493 for England and Wales; 60 for Scotland; 105 for Ireland; total for the United Kingdom 658. wates; so for scotland; two for freiand; total for the United Kingdom 60s. Under this three-fold form of Government, which combines the advantages of Monarchy, Aristocracy, and Democracy, Perfect Personal Freedom is guaranteed to every Briton, whether rich or poor; and also by the Habest Corpus and other Acts, Trial by Jury, Liberty of the Press, Liberty of Conscience, and the total Abolition of Slavery are all secured. No restriction whatever exists, but what arises from moral and social obligations and constitutional Law. There is no country in the World which enjoys the same amount of real Freedom as Great Britain—a fact which ought to be strongly impressed on the minds of British Youth.

The Parliaments of England and Scotland were united in 1707, and then called the British Parliament. In 1800, the Irish Parliament was merged in the British Parliament. The three Kingdoms were first represented in one parliament in 1801; since that period it has been called the *Imperial Parliament*, and is convened every year at Westminster. Each Session generally commences in the early part of the year, and lasts about 5 or 6 months.

c. The Executive Power devolves nominally on the King, but practically on his Ministers, who form what is called the Cabinet or Privy Council. The Sovereign appoints the Premier or Prime Minister, who is generally allowed to recommend his colleagues, subject to the approval of the Sovereign. These Cabinet Ministers conduct the affairs of the country, propose and defend government measures in parliament, and are responsible to the country for the advice which they give to the Sovereign as well as for their actions.

The Cabinet in 1869 consisted of 15 members; namely, 1. The First Lord of The Cabinet in 1869 consisted of 15 members; namely, 1. The First Lord of the Treasury who is the Premier; 2. The Lord Chancellor; 3. The Lord President of the Council; 4. The Lord Privy Seal; 5. the Chancellor of the Exchequer; 6. The Secretary of State for the Home Department; 7. The Secretary for Foreign Affairs; 8. The Secretary for the Colonies; 9. The Secretary for India; 10. The Secretary for War; 11. The First Lord of the Admiratry; 12. The President of the Board of Trade; 18. Postmaster General; 14. President of the Poor Law Board; 16. Chief Secretary for Ireland.

d. For putting the Laws into execution throughout the Kingdom, each county has the following officers:—1. A Lord Lieutenant, who is generally a nobleman, acts as the Representative of the Crown in regulating the Mittia, keeping the records, and preserving the general peace and order of the county. 2. A High Sherif, who is annually appointed by the Ming, is considered the first Civil Officer in the Ming, is considered the first Civil Officer in the Ming. is considered the ming.

who is annually appointed by the king, is considered the first Civil Officer in the county. He executes the king's mandates, and all writs directed to him by the county. He executes the king's mandates, and all writs directed to him by the courts of justice; empanels juries; brings causes and malefactors to trial, and sees sentence both in civil and criminal affairs, executed. He also decides the elections of kinghts of the shire. S. Justices of Peace or Magistrates are next to the Sheriff, and are empowered to put a great part of the statute law in execution with regard to highways, the poor, felony, riots, assaults, preservation of game; and to examine and commit to prison persons breaking the public peace. 4. The Mayor, aldermen, and common council, who form the corporations of cities or boroughs, possess a certain jurisdiction within their respective towns. 5. In rural districts, the Lords of the soil or manor have generally a power to hold courts, called Courts-leet, to prevent or punish nuisances; and Courts-Baron to enrol the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants admitted either by descent or purchase. 6. The Constable or Policeman is the lowest peace officer who can imprison persons who are quarrelling, rioting, stealing, &c., until they are brought before a magistrate.

e. For the Administration of justice, the country is divided into 8 Circuits-Home, Oxford, Midland, Norfolk, Northern, Western, South Wales and Chester, and North Wales and Chester. These are travelled by the judges twice in the year, spring and summer, for the purpose of trying causes and criminals,

- 90a. Revenue, &c .- The Revenue of the United Kingdom is derived principally from six sources; namely, Customs Duties, Excise and Stamp Duties, Land and Assessed Taxes, Income and Property Taxes, and Post Office Returns. The total amount of income in 1869 was 72,680,000%.
- b. The Public Expenditure is made up of many items, the most important of which are—Interest on the Public Debt, Annuities, Army, Navy, Civil Service and Civil List, Salaries, and Packet Service. The total amount of Expenditure in 1869 was 75,585,000. The amount of the National Debt of Great Britain and Ireland in March 1869 was 741,190,0001. The interest and charges on the management of the same were 26,424,0001. This Debt is composed of several Loans which have been lent to the Government by individuals at various times, and which bear certain rates of interest. Lenders of money to the public are called Stock or Fund-holders.
- c. Army and Navy.—Military Service in Britain is quite voluntary. The militia balloting and seaport seizure of former times are entirely abolished.
- d. The Regular Army in 1869 amounted to 204,000 officers and men; the Militia to 184,000 men; the Volunteers to 174,000 men; total 512,000 men. The Navy in 1869 consisted of 609 vessels of all kinds manned by 36,000 sailors.
- LESSON 34.—91. Religion. a.—The Religion established by Law in England and Wales is Protestant Episcopacy. From the established religion there are many Dissenters of various denominations, who enjoy the fullest liberty of worship, and are eligible to every civil office under Government (with the exception of that of Lord High Chancellor), as well as to every judicial and municipal dignity.
- b. The affairs of the Church of England are managed by Archbishops and Bishops; the doctrines are contained in the 39 Articles, and the Form of Worship is set forth in the Book of Common Prayer. For Ecclesiastical pur-Canterbury and York; 28 Dioceses of which two are under the Archbishops, and the remaining 26 under Bishops.

the remaining 26 under Bishops.

The Province of Canterbury includes Canterbury, London, Winchester, Lichfield, Lincoln, Ely, Salisbury, Exeter, Bath and Wells, Chichester, Norwich, Worcester, Hereford, Rochester, Oxford, Peterborough, Gloucester and Bristol, Llandaff, St. David's, St. Assph, and Bangor. The Province of York includes York. Ripon, Durham, Carlisle, Chester, Manchester, and Sodor and Man. c. The Archbishop of Canterbury ranks next to the princes of the blood royal, above all other peers, and is styled 'Primate of all England.' The Archbishop of York gives place only to the Archbishop of Canterbury and to the Lord Chancellor, and is styled Primate of England. They are both dignified with the address, 'Your Grace.' Of the 26 English Bishops, 24 are peers of the Realm, and as such sit in the House of Lords; but the Bishop of Sodor and Man and the last elected Bishop of the 25 others have no seat. The Bishops rank above all temporal Barons; and among themselves, the Bishop of London takes the precedence, then Durham, and next Winchester; all the rest take precedence according to the time of their appointment. They are all addressed 'Your Lordship,' and styled 'Right Reverend.'

- 92a. Education.—Elementary education, though neither entirely gratuitous nor compusiory, is so widely diffused, and given at so trifling a cost, that, by means of the National, British, Wesleyan, and other societies (to which public grants are allowed), every child in Great Britain, however poor, has for the last 50 years had the means of receiving an education suitable to his condition in life.
- b. By an Act recently passed (July 1870) compulsory elementary education will, to a limited extent, be allowed. In every town there are numerous Sunday and Evening Schools, and classes in Mechanics Institutes for labouring adults. For children in the middle and upper classes there are numerous middle-class and superior schools, both day and boarding, of various degrees of merit, many of which are very ably conducted. Of the Public Schools, the most distinguished are Eton, Rugby, Harrow, Westminster, Winchester and Shrewsbury. Although originally founded as charity schools, yet being now appropriated to the education of boys of the first families, the habits formed in meaning energly very expensive. There are also various special institutions—medical, legal, engineering, &c. The Universities, which are intended to supply a still higher kind of education, are Oxford, Cambridge, London, and Durham; and, for students in humble circumstances preparing for holy orders, the colleges of &t. David's at Lampeter in Wales, and &t. Bee's in Cumberland are well-known.
- c. The Language is English, which is spoken throughout England, and in nearly all Scotland and Ireland, and the South of Wales. The Gälic is spoken in some of the Highlands of Scotland, the Welsh in Wales; the Irish in the West parts of Ireland; the Manx in the Isle of Man; and the Norman French in the Channel Isles of Jersey, Guernsey, &c. (See Art. 87, 1a-b.)
- d. In Literature, England may justly be considered as standing pre-eminent. In Philosophy, strong, clear, and sound sense appears to be a quality peculiarly English, as is exhibited in the writings of her Bacon, Locke, Newton, Davy, Paley, and many others. Her reasoners were the first to explode those scholastic subtleties which, having usurped the name of philosophy, so long predominated among the learned. In Works of Imagination, the English genius is bold, original, and vigorous. Her Shakspeare, Mitton, Spenser, Dryden, Pope, Cowper, Byron, Southey, Orabbe, and Wordsworth are names well-known. In History we have Gibbon, Turner, Hallam, Macaulay, and Froude. In Oratory, Pitt, Chatham, &c.; in Criticism and Micellaneous Literature. Johnson and Addison; and in Divinity, Hooker, Barrow, Butler, Paley, Chillingworth, and many others.
- 93. Races, People, Character, &c. The population is composed of several races, namely English (the descendants of the ancient Britons, Saxons, Danes, and Normans intermixed), Weish (descended from the Britons), Highland Scotch and Celtic Irish. The people are called Britons; and of the countries separately English, Weish, Scotch, Irish. The leading feature in the Character of the English is an ardent love of liberty, of thinking and acting as opinion may dictate and inclination prompt, which renders them tenacious of their civilights, stern advocates of justice, and patriotic in a high degree. The knowledge that the highest offices and dignities of the State are accessible to all, encourages them to perseverance. A favourable influence on English feelings arises from the custom of the nobility and gentry who, unlike their country seats, and appear in London and at court only for a few months in spring. In their manners, the English are grave rather than gay, blunt rather than ceremonious. In their hobits they are enterprising, industrious, and generally provident; in their feelings, humane, and zealous in promoting whatever tends to the welfare of their fellow-creatures. The favourite anusements of the English are those which combine the advantages of air and exercise, such as hunting, fishing, horse-racing, oricket-playing, &c.; but the enjoyments to which an Englishman is most attached, are those within his own circle, at his own house, at Henne.

LESSON 35 .- 94. DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTIES, TOWNS, AND PLACES OF HISTORICAL INTEREST.

Explanation.—The numerals after each Town indicate the pop. in thousands of the Parliamentary Boroughs, which sometimes include adjacent places; thus, Newcastle, 128, indicates 128,000. The Census of 1871 is followed. The County Towns are printed in Italies. To towns sending representatives to Parliament a star (*) is prefixed.

Agric, means acriculture, Ar. area, Ag. against, Bat. battle, Bat. between, Borz. boroughs, Bpl. birthplace, Cas. castle, Cel. celebrated, Ctim. climate, Co. county, Com. commerce, Dpl. defeated, Dio. diocess, Marsf. manufactures, Kims. mineral, Oct. occupations, For. parish, Parl. parliament, Past. pasturage or pastoral, Sub. suburb, Serf. surface, Vil. Village.

6 Northern Counties.

1. Northumberland, cap. Newcastle.—Ar. 1,952 sq. miles; pop. 386,959.

Surf.—rugged; on the West are the Cheviots, the East is level. Clim.—cool and healthy. Miss.—coal, iron, lead, lime, &c. Occ.—agric., past., mining, manf. of glass. Dio.—Durham. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 4, Bors. 6.

Almvick, 7, nr. it Alnwick Cas. the seat of Dk. of Northmebriand.

Berwick, 13, fam. in border warfare.

Hexham, 9, once a bishopric.

Newcostie, 128, coat trade, manf. of glass and iron, bpl. of Akenside, the poet, Bamborough Cas. on the coast, now a ref.

for shipwrecked seamen. *Morpeth, 30, flannels, foundries, &c. *North Shields with Tynemouth, 38, a seaport, coal and iron trade. Bat Scenes.—Flodden Field, nr. Wooler, where Eng. def. Scots under James 4th. Sept. 1813. Halidon Hill, where Eng. def. Scots, July 19, 1833. Otterburn, the scene of Chevy Chase, where Hotspur was def. and taken prisoner, and Douglas slain, Aug. 10, 1888.

2. Durham, cap. Durham.—Ar. 973 sq. miles; pop. 685,045.

Surf .- On the West the Pennine Range and moorland, the East is undulating. Clim.—cool. Mins.—coal, lead, iron, lime. Occ.—past., agric., mining, manf. of glass, ship-building. Dio.—Durham. Mems to Part.—Co. 4, Bors. 6.

Barnard Cas., 8, nr. it Raby Cas. res. of Dk. of Clevelaud. Bishop Auckland, 46, with bishop's pal. Darlington, 27, lineus, woollens, leather,

iron, glasa.

*Durkam, 14, on a lofty em., a bishop's see, university, anc. cathed. and cas., tomb of Bede. *Gateshead, 48, a sub. of Newcastle, glass and iron.

Hartlepool, 13, a watering-place and

port. *South Shields, 44, seaport, coal trade, life boat invented here, nr. is Jarrow, seat of a monast. where Bede lived.

Bewick, naturalist and engraver.

Stanhope, 5, a mining district.

Stockton, 37, a seaport, sail-cloth, linen, with ship-building. *Sunderland with Wearmouth, 104, seaport, coal and iron trade; here is

ing place, cel. for its medicinal springs. *Whitby, 13, a seaport and bathing place, near it are alum works, and bpl. of Capt.

near it are alum works, and upit of capt.

Syork, 50, anc. Ebordcum, the second city in England in point of rank, with a cel. cathed, and cas., many Roman antic, the cap. of Roman Brit., bpl. of Constantine the Great, b. 274 A.D. Somman internal internal house, at 912.

verus was interred here, A.D. 212,

a stupendous iron bridge. Bat. Scenes.—Neville's Cross, 3 m. N. of Durham, where Eng. defeated the Scots, and took king David prisoner, Oct. 1346.

3. YORKSHIRE is divided into 3 Ridings—North, East, and West, with a fourth division round the city called the Ainsty. The North Riding (including the city and ainsty), cap. York.—Ar. 2,114 sq. miles; pop. 335,385.

Surf.—varied; on the N. E. are the N. East Moors, on the N. W. are the N. West Moors. Clim.—cool and healthy. Mins.—iron-stone in Cleveland, jet and alum nr. Whitby. Occ.—past. and agric. Dio.—York. Mems. to Parl.— Riding, 2, City and Bors. 9.

Oleveland is a dist. extending from the Tees to Whitby.

*Malton, 8, trade in malt, corn.

*Middlesborough, 46, iron works.
*Richmond, 4, with an anc. cas.
Richmondshire comprises the West part

of the N. Riding.

*Northallerton, 4, nr. it was fought the bat, of the Standard in 1138. *Scarborough, 26, a very fashionable bath-

The East Riding, cap. Beverley.—Ar. 1,200 sq. miles; pop. 269,505

Surf.—In the centre are the Wolds; the East is level. Clim.—healthy, exc. when the East Winds prevail from Feb. to May incl. Mins.—limestone. Occ. agric, and past. Dio .- York. Mems. to Parl.-Riding, 2, Bors. 4.

*Beveriey, 10 (now distranchised), with an anc. minster.
Bridlington, 9. Filey, 4. Hornsea, 3, all bathing placea.

Holderness is the district E, of the river Hull, and extends from Bridlington to Spurn Head.

Spurn Head.

*Bull, 123, a large seaport, with iron

Flamborough, a vil. with a cel. Lighthouse.

Spurn Head.

*Hull, 123, a large seaport, with iron works, distilleries, and ship-building yards, &c.

West Riding, cap. Leeds.—Ar. 2,669 sq. miles; pop. 1,831,223.

Surf .- On the E. is the Plain of York, on the West, the Pennine Range incliuding Whernside, ingleborough, Pen-y-gent. Clim.—healthy. Mins.—coal, limestone, iron, lead, sandstone. Occ.—chiefly manf. of woollens, stuffs, linen, blankets, cutlery, meahinery, glass, porcelain, &c., with part agric. and pent. Dio.—mostly in Ripon, the South portion in York. Mems. to Parl.—Riding 6, Bors. 14.

Barnsley, 23. collieries, linen; Bingley, 18, worsted goods.

*Bradford, 145, worsted stuffs, nr. are ext. iron works.

Dewabury with Batley, 54, coarse woollens, blankets, &c.
Doncaster, 18, corn and cattle markets, annual races.

Goole, 8, on the Ouse; Selby, 10, on the Ouse; Snaith, 4, on the Aire, all small

river ports.

Haver ports.

Haiffax, 65, woollens, carpets, &c.

Harrogate, 10, medicinal springs.

*Huddersfeld, 74, woollens.

Keithiey, 28, iron works, worsted goods.

*Kanresborough, 5, with a cel. dropping
well, castle, manf. of linens.

*Loods, 295, chf. seat of the woollen manf.,

with stuffs, carpets, glass, machinery,

and flax-spinning. Otley, 12, on the Wharfe, nr. are manf. of woollens.

*Pontefract, 11, an anc. tn. with a castle. *Ripon, a bishop's see, an anc. city with many charities.

many cnarrates.
Rotherham, 15, iron works.
Saddleworth, 18, a manufacturing district consisting of several villages.
Sheffield, 239, cutlery and plated goods; here James Montgomery, the poet, long resided.

Tadcaster, 4, on the Wharfe, anc. Calaria. *Wakefield, 28, woollens, large dye works, and corn mark.

Manufacturing Vils.—Birstel, pop. of par. 43. Cleckheaton, 13. Elland, 15. Heck-mondwicke, 19; Ossett, 9; Mirfield, 12; Pudsey, 13.

Bat. Scenes.—Bat. of the Standard, fought in 1138 at Cowton Moor, nr. Northallerton, when the Eng. def. the Scots. Bramham Moor, nr. Tadcaster, where the Earl of Northumberland, rebelling against Henry 4th, was killed in 1408. Wakefeld, where the Lancastrians def. the Yorkists, and Dk. of York was sialu, in 1460. Touton, nr. Tadcaster, where the Yorkists under Edward 4th def. the Lancastrians under Nargaret in 1461. Marston Moor, nr. Tork, where Cromwell def. the royalists, July 2, 1644.

LESSON 36.—95.—4. CUMBERLAND, cap. Carlisle.—Ar. 1.564 sq. miles; pop. 220, 245.

Surf.—on the N. undulating, on the S. mountainous. Mts.—Helvellyn, 3,055 ft.; Scawfell, 3,166 ft.; Skiddaw, 3,022 ft. Lakes—Uliswater, Thirlmere, Derwentwater, Bassenthwaite, &c. Clim.—cold in the mountainous parts, milder towards the West. Mins.—coal, lead, iron, plumbago, limestone, copper. Occ.—chiefly agric. and past. with mining, and manf. of cotton, linen, woollens, sail-cloth, &c. Dio.—Carlisle. Mems to Parl.—Co. 4, Bors. 4.

*Cortisle, 31, on the Eden, with an anc. cas. and cathed., manf. of cottons, woollens, linen, nr. it the Roman Wall. *Cockermouth, 7, cottons and woollens; bpl. of Wordsworth the poet. Keswick, 6, in the midst of the Lake

dist., manf. of lead pencils, long the resid of the poet Southey.

resu. of the part Synthey.
Maryport, 15, fron foundries.
Penrith, 12, an anc. castle.
Whitehaven, 18, seaport, coal mines, nr.
it is St. Bees, with a divinity college. Wigton, 9, ginghams.

5. Westmoreland, cap. Appleby.—Ar. 758 sq. miles; pop. 65,005.

-mountainous with many interesting valleys and lakes. Mu.fell, 2,901 ft.; Langdale Pikes. Lakes-Windermere and Hawes Water. Clim.on the hills, cold but healthy; in the valleys, mild and moist. Mins.-slate, timestone, copper, lead, granite, marble, coal.— Occ.—chiefly past., but agric, in the valleys, with coal, lead, and copper mines, and some manf. of cottons and coarse woollens. Dio.—Carlisle. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2 Bor. 1.

Appleby, 6, an anc. cas.

eKendal, 18, in a beautiful val., an anc. seat of the woollen manf.

Ambleside, 9. Burton-in-Kendal, 2. Kirklog the resid of the poet Wordsworth.

40 . EUROPEAN GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY. Lesson 36.

6. LANCASHIRE, cap. Lancaster, consists of two detached portions, of which the Northern is called Furness .- Ar. 1,905 sq. miles; pop. 2,818,904.

Surf.—The East is hilly with high moorlands, the West is level. Cf. Mt.—Furness-fell; Coniston Old Man, 2,577 ft.; Pendle Hill, 1,803 ft.; Bleasdais Moor. Lakes—Coniston Water and Windermere. Clim.—mild and moist; the high grounds on the East shelter the county from the East winds, but, by nigh grounds on the East shelter the county from the East winds, but, by intercepting the clouds from the Atlantic, cause much rain. Miss.—coal, iron, copper, alate, freestone, and limestone. Occ.—chiefly the manf. of cotton goods (the great staple), woollens, flannel, silk, linen, glass, iron, machinery, and locomotives, with coal mines, agric, and past. Dio.—Manchester, except Furness which is in Garlisle. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 8, Bors. 24.

Accrington, 21, cotton.

*Ashton-under-Line, 87, cot. Bacup, 10, cot. *Blackburn, 82, cot. *Bolton, 92, cot. *Bury, 41, cot. *Clitheroe, 11, cot.

Coine, 24, cot. (Blackpool, 7; Fleetwood, 4; Lytham, 4; Southport, 18, all bathing places.) Lancaster, 17, fine cas.

*Liverpool, 493, the second scaport in the

kingdom.

*Warrington, 33, cotton, glass, hardware. *Wigan, 39, cot

of cottons.

*Manchester, 383, a bishop's see, centre of the cotton manf., with manf. of machinery, &c. *Oldham, 113, cot. *Preston, 85, cot. *Rochdale, 63, cot., flan., carp., &c. St. Helens, 45, plate glass. *Salford, 124, a sub. of Manchester, manf.

Bat. Scenes.—Preston was taken in 1643 by Sir T. Fairfax for the parl. At Ribbleton Moor nr. Preston, the royalists were def. in 1648 by Crouwell. Prestom was occ. in 1715 by the Pretender, and again in 1745 by his son Charles Edward.

LESSON 37 .- 96 .- 5 Eastern Counties.

7. Lincolnshire, cap. Lincoln.—Ar. 2,776 sq. miles; pop. 436,163.

Surf. is in general flat, but is intersected by two nearly parallel ranges of hills; the East range is called the Wolds; the West, the Lincolnshire Moors; West of these is the valley of the Trent; on the South is the Fen district alled Holland. Clim. is various; the fenny district, though mostly drained, is not healthy, as intermittent fevers are not rare. Mins.—red marl, clay, chalk, iron, sand. Occ.—past. and agric. Dio.—Lincoln. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 6, Bors. 8.

Barton-on-Humber, 13; Bolingbroke, 1, with ruins of cas. in which Henry 4th was born.

Boston, 18, seaport; Croyland, 3, with

ruins of a cel. abbey.

Epworth, 4, bpl. of John Wesley.

Gainsborough, 8, on the Trent, a river [educ. port. [educ. *Grantham, 13, here Sir Is. Newton was *Great Grimsby, 26, seaport. Holbeach, 7, Horncastle, 8, grt. horse fairs.

*Lincoln, 26, anc. Lindum, a bishop's see with a cel. cathed. Louth, 10, a neat town. Spalding, 9, corn, wool.

*Stamford, 8, grt. local trade.

Cel. Scenes.—At Gainsborough, the royalists under Gen. Cavendish repulsed Cromwill, July 1648, but Cavendish was siain. At Grantham, Cromwell def. the royalists, May 13, 1643. Lincoln has been the scene of many historical events.

8. Norfolk, cap, Norwich,—Ar. 2,116 sq. miles; pop. 438,511.

Surf.—The coast on the N. W. consists of sandbanks gained from the sea; at St. Edmund's Point are cliffs 80 ft. high; the East coast is low and subject to encroachment by the sea. The interior is mostly flat with only a few elevations on the N. W. called the East Anglian heights. Clim. is colder than that of the Western counties, and exposed to the N. East winds, but dry and healthy, except on the Fens. Mins.—inconsiderable, chiefly chalk and sand for glass, manf. potter's earth and marl. Occ.—agric., except at Norwich, where are manf. of woollens, crape, &c. Dio.—Norwich. Mems to Parl.—Co. 6, Bors. 4.

corn trade.

East Dereham, 7; Wells, 6; North Wal- | Thetford, 4, an anc. to., once a bishop's

bass, 6.

*King's Lynn, 17, sesport, corn trade.

*King's Lynn, 17, sesport, corn trade.

*Norwich, 82, a bishop's see, cathed.,
insuf. of crape, camlets, woollen stuffs,
stockings, sliks, &c.

see. *Yarmouth, 35, a seaport, herring fishery,

9. Suffolk, cap. Ipswich.—Ar. 1,481; pop. 348,479.

Surf.—The coast is gen. low, except a small portion; the interior is mostly level; the highest ground is in the centre. Clim. is dry but cold in spring, when the N. E. winds prevail. Mins. unimportant. Occ., agric. Dio.—the Rast in Norwich, the West in Ely. Mems. to Parl .- Co. 4, Bors. 5.

Aldborough, 4, bpl. of Crabbe, the poet, Bungay, 6.

*Eye, 6. Sudbury, 6. Woodbridge, 3. *Ipswich, 43, corn and malt trade, manf, of agric implem, bol. of Card. Wolsey. Lowestoft, 17, seaport with 3 lighthouses.

10. Essex, cap. Chelmsford.—Ar. 1,657 sq. miles; pop. 466,427.

Burf.—The coast, and the North-East parts are gen. flat; the rest of the county is undulating, with a few hills; Langdon Hill, 620 ft., Danbury Hill, 620 ft., and Epping Forest. Chin.—cold fogs and exhalations prevail near the coast in Spring and Autumn; more inward the clim. is dry and healthy. Mins.—clay, sand, gravel, and chalk. Occ.—agric. dairles, and horticult. Dio.—chiefly in Bochester; a small pt. of W. in dio. of London. Mems. to Parl.— Co. 6, Bors. 4.

Barking, 6. Chelmsford, 9. Epping, 5, nr. it is Epping Forest, Romford, 11. Saffron-Walden, 6. Colchester, 26 anc. Camalodinum, a river port, corn and mait, syster fishery; in 1871 many Flemings settled here, and the woulden manf. and introd. the woollen manf.

*Harwich, 6, royal dock-yard, packets to Holland, bathing place. *Maldon, 5, an anc. tn. on an emin. Southend and Walton-on-Naze, bathing

places. Waltham Abbey, 5, manf. of silk and gunpowder.

11. Kent. cap. Maidstone.—Ar. 1,627 sq. miles: pop. 847,507.

Surf .- beautifully diversified; S. of the Thames are two nearly parallel ranges of hills; the North thereby called the North Downs, 616 ft., the Southerly the Ragstone range; S. of the Ragstone are the districts called the Weald and Romney Marsh. Clim. very healthy, though exposed in Spring to the East winds. Mins.—iron-stone, chalk, limestone, clay. Occ.—agric., hops, nurseries, &c., with manf. of paper, gunpowder, ship-bullding. Dio.—Canterbury and Rochester. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 6, Bors. 14.

*Canterbury, 20, metropolitan see of England, with a fine cathed.; many Huguenots settled here in 1685, and their descendants still worship in the errot of the cathed

crypt of the caned.

Chatham, 44, a principal naval station.
Deal, 8, a seaport; nr. Deal, Julius Cesar
landed, Aug. 26, Bu. 55.

Deptford, 60, a royal dock-yard.

Dover, 28, a seaport, with a fam. cas., chak-cliffs, packets to Calais.

(Falkstone, 12. Herne Bay, 5. Margate, 12; Ramsgate, 23; bathing places.)
Gravesend, 27. *Hythe, 24. Dartford, 6.

*Greenwich, 167, fam. for a Royal Observatory and hospital for disabled seamen.

seamen. SMaidstone, 26, mark for hops, with bar-racks, paper mills. *Rochester, 18, a bishop's see; an and. city, with a cel. cas.

city, with a cel. cas.
Sheerness, 16, seaport and naval arsenal
on the isle of Sheppey.
Sandwich, 2, as small seaport.
Tunbridge, 13, Tunbridge Wells, 24, cel.
for its chalybeate springs.
Woolseids, 85, fam. for its arsenal, dockyard, and milit, acad.

The Cinque Ports were, as their name implies, originally only five, namely, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and Hastings; to these were afterwards added Rye, Winchelses, Deal, and Folkstone.

LESSON 38 .- 97 .- 6 Southern Counties.

12. Surrey, cap. Guilford.—Ar. 748 sq. miles; pop. 1,090,270.

...The land nr. the Thames is diversified; the most noted of the high grounds are Banstead Downs, 576 ft., Bagshot Heath, 463 ft., and Chobham Ridge. South of this tract are the North Downs which stretch from E. to W. (oth. heights are Box Hill). Letth Hill 993 ft., Hog's Back, Hindhead Commo 923 ft.). South of this is the district called the Weald. Clim. is mild; on the hills it is bracing and salubrious. Mins.—London and plastic clays, limestone, freestone, chalk, fuller's earth, and flint. Occ.—agric., hops, gardens. Dio— Winchester. Mems. to Parl .- Co. 6, Bors. 5.

1. Places connected with or near to London :-

*Southwark or 'The Borough,' 207. *Lambeth, 379, with an anc. pal. of the Abp. of Canterbury.

Battersea, 53. Bermondsey, 80. Brixton, 25. Camberwell, 81. Clapham, 27; Dul-

wich, 4 (with a col. having a master, 4 fel., and numerous poor breth. and sist.). Peckham, 42. Putney, 9. Ro-therhithe, 25. Streatham, 14. Wimbledon, 9.

2. Other places:

Croydon, 71. Godalming, 2. Richmond, 16. Wandsworth, 19. Egham, 9; ur. is Eunnymead, where kg. John in 1215 signed Magna Charta.

Epsom, 10, cel. for its races. Farnham,

12, cel. for its hop grounds, and a pal. of the Bp. of Winchester, *Guildford, 9, grt. trade in corn.
Kew, 1, cel. for its gardens.

Kingston, 15, several Saxon kings crowned here.

13. Sussex, cap. Chichester.—Ar. 1,458 sq. miles; pop. 417,407.

Surf.—much diversified; on the N. E. is a range of high ground called Forest-Ridge, highest pt. Crowborough Beacon, 804 ft.; the N. West and centre are occupied by the Sussex Weald, an undulating tract; South of this are the South Downs, highest pt. Ditching Beacon, 858 ft. Clim.-of the S. part is mild; in the hilly parts and the Weald it is colder. Mins.—chalk, marl, clay, iron-stone, limestone grit, fuller's earth, sand-stone. Occ.—agric., hop-grounds, with ship-building in the sea-ports. Dio.—Chichester. Mems. to Part.—Co. 4, Bors. 11.

Battle, 5, cel. for its abbey, founded by | William 1st to commem. the battle of | Hastings.

*(Brighton, 103. Bognor, 2. Hastings, 33; fashionable bathing places.)

*Chichester, 9, a bishop's see, bpl, of

Collins, the poet.

*Leeses, 10. *Horsham, 7. *Midhurst, 6. bpl. of late Mr. Cobden.
(Eastbourne, 12. Pevensey. Rye, 8. *Shoreham, 25. Winchelses, sm. sea-

ports.)

Cel. Sites.—At Bettle the decisive bat. was fought bet, William and Harold, Oct. 14, 1066, when Harold was siain, and William founded the abbey to commem, the vict. At Perenege, William 1st landed, Sept. 29, 1064.

14. HAMPSHIRE, cap. Winchester.—Ar. of the mainland 1,481 sq. miles; of Isle of Wight, 164 sq. miles; total of the county, 1,672 sq. miles; pop. 543,837.

Surf.—the coast is gen. low; the interior is diversified; chf. heights, Alton Hills, of which Butser Hill is 917 ft. The Forest are Alice-Holt, Woolmer, Bère, and New Forest; the islands are Hayling and Portsea. Cim. is mild and healthy; on the Downs the air is bracing; that of the Isle of Wight is the mildest in Britain. Mins.—chalk, pipe-clay, fuller's earth, freestone, marl, and sand. Occ.—past, and agric., with manf. in the dock-yards. Pio.—Winchester. Mems. to Parl.-Co. 5, Bors. 11.

*Andover, 5, sliks. *Petersfield, 6. Ring-wood, 5. Romsey, 2. (Bournemouth, 1; Lym'ington, 5, bathing-places.) *Christchurch, 15, salmon-

placea.) *Christchurch, 15, salmon-fishery. *Portsmouth, 112, the chief Naval Sta-tion, strongly fortified; its subs. are Portsea, Southsea, Landport, and Gos-

port. #Southampton, 54; seaport, fine harbour,

cavalry barracks, many steamers.

*Winchester, 14, auc. Venta-Belgdrum,
Brit. Caer-Guent, a bishop's see, with
fine cathed.; a grt. pub. school; once
cap. of Wessex; many Saxon kings
bur. hera.

n the Isls of Wight are—Cowes, 11; *Newport, 8; Osborne House, the fav. resid. of the Queen; Ryde, 11; Vent-nor, 2.

Histor. Sites.—In Carisbrooke Cas., nr. Newport, Isle of Wight, Charles 1st was confined in 1647. Newforest, Southampton, and Winchester have been the scenes of many

15. Dorset, cap. Dorchester.—Ar. 988 sq. miles; pop. 195,544.

Surf.—diversified, a chalk range called Doract Heights, traverses the centre; another range called Purbeck Heights, lies in the S., highest pt. Pillesdon Pen, 984 ft.; on the East are wide heaths. On the S. coast are Portland and Purbock isles. Clim. is mild and healthy; on the chalk hills, the air is keen and bracing. Mins.—limestone, potter's clay (sent to Staffordahire), sand, and chalk; and in S. W. Portland stone and coarse marble. Occ.—past, and dairy pursuits. Dio.-Salisbury. Mems. to Parl,-Co. 3, Bors. 6.

Bridport, 7, cordage, sail-cloth, &c.
Blandford-Forum, 1. Corfe-Castle, 2.
Lyme Regis, 2, scaport

9 Proble, 10, scaport.
Dorchester, anc. Durnovaria, 6, brewerles,

broad cloth.
Shaftsebury, 8. Wareham, 6, stockinga,
buttons, &c.
Weymouth with Melcombe-Regis, 13, a
bathing place.

16. DEVONSHIER, cap. Exeter.—Ar. 2,589 sq. miles; pop. 600,814.

Surf.—The coasts both N. and S. are steep and rocky; the interior is much diversified; great part of the S. W. is coc. by Dartmoor, an elevated barren plain; highest pt. is Yes-Tor. 2,050 ft. Exmoor, another high dist. occupies the N. E., highest pt. is Dunkerry Beacon. 1,668 ft. Black-Down Hills lie on the E.; the rest of the county is beautiful. Clim. is mild but moist; myrtles grow in the open air; on the N. coast the air is colder and the winds keen.

Mins.—chalk, sand-stone, Devonian limestone, marble, slate, fine clay, copper, tin, lead, iron, manganese. Occ.—dairy, past., agric., manf. of woollens, carpets, cotton, with copper and thi mining. Dio.—Exeter. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 6, Bors. 11.

Ashburton, 6, cloth.
Barnstaple, 11, woollens; Bideford, 6, seaport, ropes, &c.
Brixham, 7; here William 3rd landed,
Nov. 5, 1683.
Devouport, 64, adjoins Plymouth, large

dock-yards.

Exeter, 44, anc. Isca Damnibrum, scaport, bishop's see, residence of many gentry, breweries, mant. of paper, iron foundries, scene of many histor, events.

Honiton, 3, fine lace.

*Pijm'outh, 69, the 2nd naval station in the kingdom.

*Tavistock, 7, coarse linens; nr. are mines.

*Tiverton, 10, lace, woollens, &c.

Bathing Places - Dartmouth, 4; Dawlish,
3; Exmouth, 7; Hifracombe, 6; Linton,
1; Sidmouth, 2; Teignmouth, 12; Torquay, 28.

17. CORNWALL, cap. Bodmin.—Ar. 1,365 sq. miles; pop. 362,098.

Surf.—elevated and moorland, intersected from E. to W. by a ridge of rugged hills scantily wooded; containing, however, many beautiful and fertile valleys; chf. hts., Brown Willey, 1,368 ft.; Rough Tor, 1,296 ft. The shores are much indented. Clim.—mild but damp, with freq. rain, but gen, healthy; myrtles grow in the open air, but fruits do not ripen well. Mins.—tin, copper, lead, rinc, iron, silver, manganese, antimony, cohalt, granite, porcelain-clay, &c. Occ.—mining of tin and copper, with pasturage and the pilchard fishery. Dio.—Exeter. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 4, Bors. 9. The Prince of Wales, who is also Duke of Cornwall, derives a large revenue from the mines.

*Bodmin, 6. Camborne, 14, nr. is a copper mine.
Faimouth, 5. seaport, mail packets sail hence.
Gwennap, 19, nr. are copper mines.
*Helstone, 8. seaport.
Launceston, 5, with an old cas.
*Liskeard, 6, serges, leather.
Pensance, 10, frequented for its salubrity and sea-bathing.
*Penrhy, 4, adjoining Faimouth.
Perranzabulõe, 2; here, in 1825, an anc.

church was discov, which for ages had been bur, in the sands, Redruth, 10, nr. are rich tin and copper

mines.
St. Agnes, 6, grt. mining dist., pilchard fishery.

St. Austell, 14, pilchard fishery, manf. of woollens, nr. are tin mines and beds of fine clay. St. Germans, 3. *St. Ives, 10, pilchard

fishery.

*Truro, 10, seaport for tin, with a mining college; bpl. of Sir H. Davy.

Cel. Sites.—Pendennis Cus., nr. Falmouth, was the last stronghold of Charles 1st, and surrendered to the Parliament, July 31, 1645. Tratagetl Cus., 5 m. from Camelford, is the reputed bpl. of King Arthur.

LESSON 39.—98. 7 Western Counties.

18. Somersetshire, cap. Bath.—Ar. 1,636 sq. miles; pop. 463.412.

Surf.—much diversified, containing sev. ranges of hills, sep. by tracts of low ground, once mere swamps, but now drained. The West is coc. by pt. of Exmoor. In the 8. and cent. are the Vales of Taunton and the Paret. Cht. Mt. Mendip Hills, 1,100 ft; Quantoct Hills, 1,270 ft.: Black-lown Hills, and Exmoor. Clim. is healthy exc. on the low grounds; the revailing Winds are

the West which are moist. Mins.—coal, lead, fuller's earth, limestone, freestone, &c. Occ.—past., dairy and agric., with manf of woollens, linens, gloves, paper, glass, leather, and mining. Dio.—Bath and Wells; exc. Bedminster in Dio. of Bristol. Mens. to Part.—Co. 6, Bors. 7.

*Bath, 53, a bishop's see; an eleg. city, cel. for its medicinal springs.

Wells, 4, a bishop's see, united to that of Bath; an anc. city.

*Bridgewater, 12, bpl. of Admiral Blake,

Frome, 9, woolien cloths.

Giastonbury, 3, with ruins of a cel. abbey. Wellington, 8, woollens; Yeovil, 8, gloves.

*Taunton, 15, silks, woollens, first estab. here in 1336.

Bathing Pluces-Clevedon, 2; Minehead, 3; Weston-super-Mare, 4.

Cel. Sites.—Atheiney, an isle formed by the Tone and Parret, where King Alfred found security when driven from his throne by the Danes. Sedgemoor, 5 m. from Bridgewater, where Dk. of Monmouth was def. in 1885. At Taunton, after the bat. of Sedgemoor, Judge Jeffreys held his bloody assize.

19. WILTSHIRE, cap. Salisbury.—Ar. 1,352 sq. miles; pop. 257,202.

-diversified; the Northern part contains Marlborough Downs, 'elevated district; the Southern part contains the vale of Pewsey and Salisbury Plain, an elevated table land, 500 ft.; chf. hts. Ink-pen Beacon, 1,011 ft. Wingreen Hill, 941 ft. Clim.—mild in the valleys, on the higher grounds, keen but healthy to robust constitutions. Mins.—chalk on the Downs, in the vales, Oxford clsy, coral-rag, freestone, and limestone. Occ.—agric., past., with man, of fine woollens, carpets, silks, fiannels, &c. Dio.—Salisbury. Mems. to Parl.—Chalk Co. 4, Bors. 11.

Bradford, 10, an anc. tn. fine cloths.

*Calne, 5, woollens. *Chippenham, 6, woollens. *Cricklade, 12. *Devizes, 6, when the control of the c silks. Melksham, 5, woollens. *Maimes bury, 6. *Marlborough, 5, ropes, sacking; a large school. ing; a large school.

*Salisbury, 13, a bishop's see, cathed.; nr.

is Old Sarum, an extinct city, which till 1833, though with only one house, sent 2 mems. to Parl. Trowbridge, 12, woollens. Warminster,

7, woollens.

*Westbury, 6, woollens. *Wilton, 8, carpets, once a bishop's see.

Cel. Sites.—At Clarendon pr. Salisbury, Henry 2nd, in 1163, held a parl, which passed the 'Constitutions of Clarendon', to restrain the exorbitant power of the Romish elegy Conschenge on Salisbury Plain was probably a Druidical Temple; it consists of 3 circles of large stones, some of which are upright, others prostrate, the outer circle is surrounded by a trench.

20. GLOUCESTERSHIRE, cap. Gloucester.—Ar. 1.258 sq. miles: pop. 534,320.

Surf.—The Severn divides the county into two parts, E. and W.; the Forest of Dean on the S. W. is hilly and picturesque. N. of the Forest is the vale of Gloucester; E. of the Severn is the vale of Berkeley, and E. of this vale is the Cotswold range; chf. hts. Broadway Beacon, 1,086 ft; Clever Hill, 1,124 ft. Clim.—mild in the valleys; on the Cotswold, sharp and bracing. Mins.—coal, iron, lead, sinc, building-stone, marble, limestone. Occ.—agric. past., dairy, with manf. of glass, pottery, woollens, carpets, cottons, lace, dys-works; fron and coal mining. Dio.—Gloucester and Bristol. Mems. to Part.—Co. 4,

*Bristol, 182, the third scaport in Eng., glass, iron, &c.; bpl. of the poets Southey and Coleridge.
*Cheltenham, 44, cel. for its mineral

*Cironcester (cis-c-ter), 7, of Brit. origin, and once a Rom, state.

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Clifton, 26, a cel, watering place. Winch-comb, 10. Wotton-under-edge, 5. *Gloucester, 31, a bishop's see, united with Bristol; an anc. city, great trade. *Stroud, 38, fine cloth, the water cel. for

its property in dyeing cloth. *Tewkesbury, 5, cotton and hosiery.

Cel. Site.—At Tewkesbury, the Yorkists command. by Edw. 4th def. the Lancastrians under Margaret, May 1471.

21. Monmouthshire, cap. Monmouth.—Ar. 576 sq. miles: pop. 195,391.

Surf.—much diversified; the North and West are mountainous; chf. hts. Sugar Loaf Mt., 1,856 ft.; Blorence, 1,720 ft. The middle and East parts consist of hill and dale; the South is level. Clim.—mild in the vales, cool on the high grounds. Mins .- coal, limestone, and iron-stone. Occ .- agric., past.,

orchards, manf. of flannels; collieries and iron works. Dio.-Llandaff, 4 pars. in Hereford. Mems. to Parl .- Co. 2, Bor. 1.

Note. - Monmouthshire was separated from Wales, and annexed to England in 1535.

Abergavenny, 9. Pontypool, 25, iron works. Tredeuar, 33, iron works. Caer-leon, 8 (castle of the legion), once the cap. of Wales, metropol, see of the Britons, Isca-Silárum of the Romans. Caer-went, the Roman Venta-Silurum,

nr. is Caldecot cast. nr. 18 Canteens vass.

Chepstow, 6, trade in coal, iron, nr. are
the ruins of Tintern Abby.

**Monmouth, 5, trade in iron, with a cas,
Newport, 26, seaport, trade in coal and iron.

Cel. Sites.—Monmouth Cas., the bpl. of Henry 5th. Ragian Cas., after a brave defence under the Marquis of Worcester, then 80 years of age, surrendered to Sir T. Fairfax in 1848. Tintern Abbey, 6 m. from Chepatow, built in 131, is one of the finest ruins in England.

22. Herefordshire, cap. Hereford.—Ar. 836 sq. miles; pop. 125,364.

Surf.—generally hilly, with valleys occasionally expanding into open plains; chf. hts., Malvern Hills on the East; the Black Mts. on the S. West. Clim. is very healthy, and many of the inhabs. are long-lived. Mins.—old red sandstone, chalk, and manl. Occ.—agric., hop-grounds, orchards, with manf. of gloves and hats. Dio.—Hereford, part in St. David's. Mens. to Part.—Co. 3, Bors. 3.

*Herřford, 18, a bishop's see, trade in cider, cheese, &c.
*Leomisster, 5, grt. mark.for wool, hops, cel. by Pope, resided here.

Mem. Sites.—Mortimer Cross, 5 m. from Leominster, is cel. for the def. of the Lancastrians by the Yorkists, Feb. 2, 1461, when Owen Tudor, grandfather of Henry VI. was taken prisoner.

23. Shropshire or Salop, cap. Shrewsbury.—Ar. 1,291 square miles; pop. 248,064.

Surf. is divided into two parts by the Severn; the Northern is occ. by the plain of Salop, on the E. of which is the Wrekin Hill, 1,320 ft. The S. W. of the county contains several ranges of hills divided by beautiful valleys: Caradoc Hills, 1,200 ft., Wenlock Edge, Clee Hills, 1,805 ft. Clim.—healthy. Minscoal, iron, lead, limestone, and freestone. Occ.—agric., past., dairies, and hops, with manf. of machinery, porcelain, glass, flannels, coarse linens, carpets, with coal, iron, and lead mines in Coal-brook Dale. Dio.—Hereford and Chester. Mems. to Parl.-Co. 4, Bors. 6.

with an anc. cas.

*Ludlow, 6, with an anc. cas.

Madelcy, 10, porcelain, fron works, collieries, in Coal-brook Dale.

*Bridgenorth, 7, woollens, stockings, &c., with an anc. cas. *Station of the state Oswestry, 7. Wellington, 14, coal and iron.

Mom. Scenes.—At Shrewsbury was ft. on July 21, 1403, the bat, bet. Henry 4th and the Earl of Northumberiand, when the Earl was def., his son Harry Hotspur siain, and Earl Douglas taken prisoner.

24. Cheshire, cap. Chester.—Ar. 1,105 sq. miles; pop. 561,131.

Surf.—level or undulating, except the extreme East and North West borders, which are hilly. Clim.—moist. Mins.—rock-sait, coal, with copper and lead. Occ.—past. and dairy, with salt and coal mining, iron foundries, and manf. of cotton and silk. Dio.—Chester. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 6, Bors. 7.

Altrincham, 25. Crewe, 4. Nantwich, 10, salt mines. Runcorn, 8.
*Birkenhead, 65, seaport, ship-building.

*Chester, 38 (Roman Deva), a bishop's see, an anc. city, grt. trade.

*Macclesfield, 35, cottons, silks.

*Stockport, 53, cottons.

LESSON 40.—99. 16 Midland Counties.

25. DERBYSHIRE, cap. Derby.—Ar. 1,029 sq. miles; pop. 380,538.

Surf .- The central and North-Western portions are elevated, forming a branch of the Pennine range with numerous valleys. The South and South

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East districts are undulating; chf. hts. Kinderscout, 1,800 ft., Axe-Edge-Hill, 1,809 ft., Mam-Tor, 1,751 ft. The extreme North of the county is called High-Peak, the middle Low Peak. The most picturesque Dales are—Castleton-Vale, Chatsworth, Dove-dale, Monsal-dale, Mam-Tor, and Matlock. Clim.—cold and moist, but bracing; in exposed situat. wheat does not grow. Miss.—red marl, sand-stone, mill-stone, coal, lime-stone, iron-stone, lead, zinc, copper, black marble, and fluor-spar. Occ.—coal and lead mining, marble and spar quarrying; manl. of cottons, silks, hosiery, porcelain, and pasturage. Dio.—Lichfield. Mans. to Part.—Co. 6, Bors. 2.

Alfreton, 11, pottery. Ashbourne, 4. Bakewell, 10. Donnfield, 7. Belper, 8, coeton, silk, earthenware. Chatsworth, nr. it seat of Dk. of Devonshire. (Buxton, 6, Matlock, 10; cel. for their mineral springs.)

Chesterfield, 11, cottons, silks; nr. are coal inines. **SDerby, 61, silks, lace, first Eng. silk-mill erected here. Glossop, 17, cottons, silks, &c. Wirksworth, 5, nr. are lead mines.

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26. NOTTINGHAMSHIRE, cap. Nottingham.—Ar. 822 sq. miles; pop. 319,956.

Surf.—diversified, exc. the North, which is flat. Sherwood Forest is nr. the centre; in the extreme South are the Wolds, a region of moors and pastures; the beautiful vale of Belvoir is in the extreme South East. Clim.—dry and healthy. Mins.—limestone, red sandstone, gypsum, gravel, and coal. Occ.—agric, past., hosiery, lace, and coal mining. Dio.—Lincoln. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 4, Bors. 6.

Mansfield, 11, hosiery lace, cotton, nr. is Newstead Abbey, formerly belonging to Lord Byron. Newsrt 12 trade in corn, malt cattle

*Nowark, 12, trade in corn, malt, cattle.

*Nottingham, 88, chf. seat of stocking and lace trade, with a cel. cas. (the follow-

ing are manf. vils. near:—Greasley, Lenton, Radford, Snenton). *Retford East, 5 (Including sev. adjacent places, 23). Southwell, 11, ailks, lace, with fine church. Worksop, 10.

Cel. Sites.—At Southwell, Charles 1st surrendered to the Scotch army, May 6, 1846. At Nottingham Gastle, Mortimer was selzed by order of young Edward 3rd, 1830. Here, also, Charles 1st, on Aug. 22, 1642, crocted his standard.

27. RUTLAND, the smallest county in England; cap. Oakham.— Ar. 150 sq. miles; pop. 22,070.

Surf.—agreeably diversified. Occ.—pasturage. Dio.—Peterborough. Mens. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bors. none; Oakham 11, Uppingham 5.

28. Leicestershire, cap. Leicester.—Ar. 804 sq. miles; pop. 268.764.

Surf. has an elevat. of 320 ft., and is pleasingly diversified; the highest grounds are in the N. E., the centre, and the South; the highest pt. is Bardon Hill, 853 ft., in Charmwood Forest. Clim.—mild and genial. Mins.—coal, iron, lead, state, limestone. Occ.—past. and dairy, with manf. of stockings, hostery, ootton, carpets, and coal mining. Dio.—Peterborough. Mems. to Part.—Co. 4, Bors. 2.

Ashby-de-la-Zouch, 9, an anc. tn., nr. are coal mines.
Bosworth, 6. Hinckley, 8, hosiery.
Loughborough, 18, lace and hosiery.
Market Harborough, 15.

*Leicester, 95, hosiery, lace, boots, shoes. Melton Mowbray, 6, grt. resort of fox hunters.

Lutterworth, 14; of this place Wycliffe was rector, and here he died 1384.

Cel. Sites.—Belvoir Castle, the magnif, seat of the Dk. of Rutland. At Bosworth, the decisive bat. was it. bet, the Yorkists and Lancastrians, Aug. 22, 1485, when Richard 3rd was slain and Henry 7th elevated to the throne. At Leicester Abbey, Cardinal Wolsey died in 1830.

29. STAFFORDSHIRE, cap. Stafford.—Ar. 1,138 sq. miles; pop. 857,333.

Sury.—The N. Bast consists of high moorlands; the East and South are hilly; chf. hts. Weaver Hills, 1,154 ft., Cannock Chase, 715 ft. The centre and S. W. are undulating. Clim.—chiefly subject to freq. rain; the aver. rainfall is 36 in., while in London it is only 21 in. Mins.—on the N., new red sandstone, millstone grit, shale, limestone, potter's clay, and coal. This part is the seat

of the earthenware manis. In the S., coal and ironstone which are abundant, copper, lead, marble, &c. Occ.—chify. manf. of iron goods, pottery, glass, carpets, hats, boots and shoes, coal and iron mining, with some past, and agric. Dio.—Liehfield. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 6, Bors. 12.

Burton-on-Trent, 26, brewerics. Leek, 13, silks, ribbons. *Lichfield, 7, bishop's see, bpl. of Dr. S. Johnson.

*Newcastle-under-Lyne, 15, silk, cotton,

paper.
*Stafford, 15, shoes, boots, &c.
*Tamworth, 11, carpets, lace.
The Iron dist. comprises—*Wolverhamp-

def. the Lancastrians on Sept. 23, 1459.

ton, 163, chf. seat of iron trade. Bilston, 24. Brierly Hill, 8. Tetten-hall, 3. Tipton, 29. Walsall, 49. Wednesbury, 25. West Bromwich, 47. hall, 3. Tipton Wednesbury, 25. Willenhall, 27.

The Pottery dist. comprises—*Stoke-on-Trent, 130, chf. seat. Burslem, 27. Fenton, 10. Hanley, 39. Longton, 19. Tunstall, 27.

Mem. Site.—At Blore-Heath, nr. Eccleshall, the Yorkists und. the Earl of Salisbury

30. Worcestershire, cap. Worcester.—Ar. 738 sq. miles; pop. 338.848.

Surf.—gently varied; on the N. E. are Clent Hills; on E. Lickey Hills; on S., Broadway Hill; on the W. Abberley Hills, 800 ft., and Maivern Hills, 1,396 ft.; the intermediate space is occ. by the vales of Severn, Avon, and Evesham. Clim.—mild and healthy in the vales, cold on the hills. Mins.—new red sandstone, coal, and iron-stone nr. Dudley; salt in Droitwich, clay and building stone. Occ.-collieries, manf. of nails, needles, carpets, gloves, porcelain, with agric., past., and hop-grounds. Dio.—Worcester, exc. a few par. in Hereford. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 4, Bors. 7.

Bewdley, 7, carpets, iron goods. Bromsgrove, 13, nails and needles. 9Drottwich, 9, salt works. 9Dudley, 82, iron works, coal mines. 8Evesham, 15, stockings. 8Kidderminster, 20, carpets.

Malvern, 4, cel. for its medicinal springs. Oldbury, 17, fron trade. Redditch, 5, needles, fish-hooks. Stourbridge, 24, glass and fron works. *Worcester, 41, a bishop's see, porcelain, lace, gloves, &c.

Mem. Site.—At Worcester, Sept. 3, 1651, Cromwell def. the royalists under Charles 2nd,

LESSON 41.-31. WARWICKSHIRE, cap. Warwick.-Ar. 881 sq. miles; pop. 633,202.

Surf. consists of gentle eminences with intervening vales; the S. E. is skirted by hills overlooking the Vale of the Red Horse, so called from a colossal figure carved on the slope of Edge Hill; oth. the. Burton Hills, Edge Hill, Brown Hill, 830 ft., and Forest of Arden on the W. Clim.—mild and healthy, cold on the hills. Mins.—coal, limestone, marl, red sandstone. Occ.—in the N, iron and steel manf.; at Coventry, ribbons, &c. S. of Coventry, agric. and past. Dio.—Worcester. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 4, Bors. 7.

Birmingham, 343, hardware, arms, machinery, &c.

Connery, 41, an anc. tn., silks, ribbons, watches, jewellery.

Kentlworth, 6, with a cel. cas.

Rugby, 14, with a cel. pub. school.

Leamington, 22, cel. for its mineral springs.
Stratford-on-Avon, 3, bpl. of Shakspeare.
*Warwick, 11, with a cel. cas.
Sutton-Coldfield, 6.

Mem. Site.—At Edge Hill, a hat, was ft. Oct. 23, 1642, bet, the Royalists under Charles 1st and the parl, under Earl of Essex; the royalists retired the fol. day.

32. NORTHAMPTON, cap. Northampton.—Ar. 985 sq. miles: pop. 243,896.

Surf. has an elevat. of about 300 ft.; is pleasingly diversified; a range of hta runs along the Northern boundary; another in the 8. nr. Towcester; the highest land is about Daventry; ht. of Arbury Hill, 804 ft. The N. E. extremity belongs to the Fen District. Cim.—mild and healthy, not subject to heavy and continuous rains. Mins.—limestone, clay, ironstone, and sandstone. Occ.—past. and agric, with manf. of boots, shoes, leather, lace, hats, and malting. Dio.—Peterborough. Mems. to Purl.—Co. 4, Bors. 4.

Daventry, 4, shoes, whips, &c.
Kettering, 10, shoes, boots, stays.
*Northampton, 44, shoes, boots, stockings, lace; Parliaments have sometimes been held here.

*Peterborough, 17, a bishop's see, fine cathed, bpl, of Dr. Paley. Oundle, 6; nr. is Fotheringhay Cas., in which Mary Queen of Scots was beheaded, and which was razed to the ground by her son James 1st.

Cel. Site.—At Naseby, 13 m. from Northampton, Cromwell gained a great vict. over Charles 1st, June 14, 1645.

33. Huntingdon, cap. Huntingdon.—Ar. 361 sq. miles; pop. 64,250.

Surf .- in the cent., S. and W. is gently varied; in the N. E. and East it is flat, forming part of the Fen dist., and containing Ramsey and Ugg meres or lakes. Whittleses Mere is now drained. These meres are visited by numerous aquatic wild fowl. Clim.—mild, but healthy only on the higher grounds; the fens are subj. to fogs. Miss.—clay, stone-brash, and ironsand. Occ.—agric. Dio.—Ely. Mems. to Parl .- Co. 2, Bors. 1.

*Huntingdon, 6, trade in wool, corn; | St. Ives, 7. St. Nents, 9. bpl. of Oliver Cromwell. | Stilton, 5, famous for its cheese.

34. CAMBRIDGESHIRE, cap. Cambridge.—Ar. 819 sq. miles; pop. 186,363.

Surf.—flat, exc. in the S.; the North is in the Fen dist., known as the Bedford Level (see Less. 28), intersected by ditches and sluggish streams. The towns Level (see Less. 25), intersected by ditches and suggists streams. The towns are on ground a little above the level. The part N. of the Ouse is called the Isle of Ely. The Southern part of the co. has a few elevations, as, the Gogmagog Hills, 802 ft. Clim.—in the upland is mild and healthy; in the Fens, agues and fevers prevail when the waters subside. Mins.—chalk, blue clay, called galt, and limestone. Occ.—past. and agric. Dio.—Ely. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 3, Cam. Univers, 2, Bors. 2.

*Cambridge, 34, on the Cam, seat of a cel. Univers., with great local trade. *Cambridge Univers. consists of 16 cells. and I hall; each coll. is gov. by its own statutes, but the gov. of the whole Newmarket, 6, fam. for its races.

rests with a Senate. Ely, 8, a bishop's see, an anc. city with a fine cathed., corn mark,

Cel. Site.—The Isle of Ely, after the bat. of Hastings, 1066, became the refuge of the English under the brave Earl Hereward, and was held by him till 1074, when the isle was betrayed by the monks,

35. Bedfordshire, cap. Bedford.—Ar. 462 sq. miles; pop. 146,256.

Surf. is in gen. undulating; the Chiltern Hills are in the S.: chf. ht. Barton Hill. Clim.—mild and healthy. Mins.—fuller's earth, chaik, freestone, Oxford clay, limestone, marl, and marble. Occ.—agric. and horticult., with manf. of lace, straw-plait, and agric. implements. Dio.—Ely. Mens. to Parl. o. 2, Bor. 2,

*Bedford, 13, lace, corn mark., many charities, bpl. of John Bunyan, and in its gaol he wrote the 'Pilgrim's Progress.' Biggleswade, 18. Dunstable, 4, straw-plait.

Leighton-Buzzard, 9

Luton, 24, straw-plait. Woburn, 6, with a cel, abbey, st. of Dk. of Bedford.

LESSON 42.—36. Buckinghamshire, cap. Aylesbury.— Ar. 730 sq. miles; pop. 175,870.

Surf.-the North is much varied. The Chiltern Hills cross the county from Suff.—the North is muon varied. The Univert Hills cross the county from N. E. to S. W.; the highest pt. is near Ivinghoe, 904 ft.; Muswell Hill, 744 ft. The vale of Aylesbury occ. the centre; to this succeeds the valley of the Thames. Clim.—mild and healthy. Miss.—chalk, marl, fuller's earth, plastic clay, and sandstone. Occ.—agric. and dsiry farms, with manf. of paper, lace, and straw-plait. Dio.—Oxford. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 3, Bors. 5.

*Aylesbury, 28; about 8 m. 8. is Hampden the prop. of the cel. John Hampden.
Desconsfield, 2, once the resid. of Edmund

Burke. *Buckingham, 7, paper, lace, nr. are the gardens of Stowe belonging to the late

Dk. of Buckingham.

Eton and Slough, 11, cel. for its pub.
school, called Eton Col. founded by Henry 6th.

*Great Marlow, 6, silk, paper.
*High Wycombe, 14, lace, paper.
Olney, 10, long the resid. of the poet
Cowper, John Newton, and Thos. Scott. Slough, once the res. of Sir W. Herschell, the astronomer.

Stoke Powes, 1, the churchyard was the scene of Gray's 'Elegy,' and here Gray is buried.

37. Oxfordshire, cap. Oxford.—Ar. 739 sq. miles; pop. 177.956.

Surf .- undulating; the Chiltern Hills traverse the S.; highest pt. Nettlebed Hill, 820 ft. Clim.—cool, but very healthy. Mins.—in the N. and Cent. clay, limestone, sand, and gravel; in the S. chalk, marl, and greensand. Occ.—agric., with manf. of gloves, horse-cloths, and blankets. Dio.—Oxford. Mens. to Parl.—Co. 3, Bors. 6.

*Banbury, 11, corn, cheese. Henley-on-Thames, 14. Dorchester, 1, an anc. tn. once a bishop's see, which was removed to

Lincoln. Oxford, 34, a noble city, bishop's see, on the lais

Oxford Univers., said to have been

founded by Aifred in 880; contains 18 cols. and 5 hails. Each col. is gov. by its own statutes. Resid. at col. or licensed lodgings is compulsory. Witney, 7, blankets, woollens. *Woodstock, 7, gloves, &c.; nr. is Blesheim, seat of Dk. of Marlborough.

Mom. Site.—At Chalgrove, a vil. 13 m. from Oxford, John Hampden rec. his death-wound, while charging Prince Rupert's horse, June 18, 1643, and died a few days afterwards.

38. Berkshire, cap. Reading.—Ar. 705 sq. miles; pop. 196,445.

Surf.—diversified; on the E. is Windsor Forest, high and varied; West of the land is undulating; highest pt. White Horse Hill, 853 ft. North of Surf.—diversiled; on the E. is Windsor Forest, high and varied; West of this, the land is undulating; highest pt. White Horse Hill, 853 ft. North of this is the vale of the White Horse. The vale of Kennet on the S. of the county includes a large extent of low land. Clim.—is one of the most healthy in Rngland; fevers and epidemic diseases are rare. Mins.—chalk, London clay, gravel, sand. Occ.—agric. and past. Dio.—Oxford. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 3,

*Abingdon, 6, matting, sacking, &c. Hungerford, 9. Maidenhead, 6. Newburr, 6, malt trade. Wantage, 7, bpl. of King Alfred. *Beading, 33, corn trade, manf. of pins,

blankets, ribbons.

*Windsor, 17, a royal cas., princip. res.
of the English sovereign. *Wallingford, 8, mait, corn.

Mem. Sitea.—At Newbury a bat. was it, bet. the Royalists under Prince Rupert and the parl, forces under the Earl of Essex, Sept. 20, 1643. A second bat. occurred, Oct. 27, 1644, when the Royalists under the king were repulsed by the parl, forces under the Earl of Manchester.

39. HERTFORDSHIRE, cap. Hertford.—Ar. 611 sq. miles; pop. 192,725.

Surf.—undulating; chf. hts., Kinsworth Hill, 908 ft.; Offley Hill, 664 ft.; both form parts of the Chiltern Hills. Clim.—mild and salubrious. Mins.—chiefy chalk, but in S.E. and S.W. London clay. Occ.—agric. and past., with malting, and manf. of paper and straw-plait. Dio.—Bochester. Mems. to Part.— Co. 3, Bor. 1.

Berkhampstead, 6, bpl. of Cowper the poet.

Barnet, 7. Bishop Stortford, 9.

Hertford, 7, corn and mail.

Hatfield, 6. Hitchin, 18, straw-plait, silk.

**Hatfield, 7. Hit

Mom. Sites.—At Barnet on Ap. 14, 1471, the Lancastrians were def. by the Yorkists, and Warwick and his brother Montague killed. At St. Alban's on May 23, 1465, the Yorkists under Edw. Dk. of York def. Henry 6 th, and took him prisoner. A second bat, occurred here on Feb. 17, 1461, when the Yorkists under Warwick were def. by the Lancastrians under Margaret.

40. MIDDLESEX, cap. London.—Ar. 282 sq. miles; pop. 3.251.804.

Surf.—undulating, except the extreme S.W. and S.E., which are flat. A range of hills lies on the N. and W.; chf. hts., Highgate Hill, 450 ft.; Hampstead Heath, 430 ft., and Harrow on the Hill. Clim.—mild and healthy. Mins.—clay, sand, and gravel. Occ.—dairies, gardens, nurseries, and arable farms. The manif. centre in London. Dio.—London. Mens. to Parl.—Co. 2, London city 4, Univers. 1, Westminster 2; Bors. of Chelsea 2, Finsbury 2, Marylebone 2, Tower Hamlets 2, Hackney 2.

London (within the Tables of Mortality) 3,251, cap. of the county, and metropolis of the Brit. Emp., is the largest and most pop. city in the world. London, as the Matropolis, comprises the fol.:—1. London Proper or 'The City,' situated R. of the Thames, comprises about 108 parlehes, and contains the great mercantile, printing, and other large catabilishments. 2. *The City of Westminster contains the royal palaces, houses of Parl, courts of Law, &c. 2. *Bor. of Prinsbury includes 9 pars. 4. Bor. of Marylehone includes 3 pars. 5. *Tower Hamlets includes 15 pars. 6. *Bor. of Southwark, R. of the Thames, includes 3 pars. 7. Lambelt, B. of the Thames, includes 3. pars. The Metrop. thus covers about 78,000 Acres or 122 sq. miles. A popular division is into 4 parts, namely—1, the City; 2. the West End (Temple Bar dividing it from the city); 3. the East End; 4. the Borough of Southwark.

The places adjoining London, N. of the Thames are—*Chelsen, 258; Brompton, 28; Kennington, 91; Hampstead, 33; Higharate, 4; Stoke-Newington, 9; Horney 19.

On the Surrey Side are—Battersea, 53; Brixton, 35; Camberwell, 31; Clapham, 27, and Dulwich, 24.

and Dulwich, 24.

In Kent are—Deptford, 60; *Greenwich, 187; and Sydenham, 19.
The other Torus in Kidalesse are—Brentford, 30; the nominal county town, Enfield, 16; Harrow, 10; Hounsiow, 3; Staines, 10; Uxbridge, 5.

LESSON 43.—100.—6 Counties in North Wales.

1. Anglesea, cap. Beaumaris.—Ar. 303 sq. miles; pop. 50,919.

Surf.—slightly undulating; the Parys Mt. is 478 ft. in ht. Nr. the coast are sev. small islands. Clim.—is mild, but in autumn foggy. Mins.—copper, lead, silver, limestone, marble, millstone, and coal. Occ.—past., copper, lead, and coal mining. Dio.—Bangor. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 1, Bor. 1.

Aberdraw, 1, once the res. of the Welah princes.
Amiwch, 7, a seaport; nr. are the Parys | Seammaris, 2, seaport, bathing place; nr. is the Menai Strait.
Amiwch, 7, a seaport; nr. are the Parys | Robinbead, 8, nearest port to Dublin, with princes.
Amiwch, 7, a seaport; nr. are the Parys copper mines.

Sustinius Paulinus, the Rom. gen., landed in Anglesea, A.D. 61, def. the natives, killed the Druid priests, and cut down the sacred groves.

2 lighthouses.

2. FLINT, cap. Mold, consists of two detached parts.—Ar. 289 sq. miles; pop. 76,245.

Surf.—is varied; the N. pt. contains part of the vales of Clwyd and Mold; a ridge of hills runs through the county. The detached portion is flat. Clim,—mild, except on the high grounds; rain is frequent. Mins.—coal, lead, copper. Occ.—agric., with coal, lead, and copper mining. Dio.—St. Asaph. Mems. to Park.—Co. 1, Bor. 1.

*Flint, 4, seaport, bathing place. Hawarden, 11, iron foundries Holywell, 11, cottons, foundries. Mold, 13, cotton; nr. are coal and lead mns. Rhyl, 1, bathing place. St. Asaph (with Rhyl, 12), a bishop's sec.

Note.—The Welsh were independent till the reign of Edward 1st, who, in 1282, subdued the country and annexed it to the English crown.

3. Denbigh, cap. Denbigh.—Ar. 603 sq. miles; pop. 105,266.

Surf.-is hilly, but includes the vales of Clwyd, Llangollen, and Conway. Clim.—is mild in the valleys; rain is frequent. Mins.—coal, lead, iron-stone, millstone, and slate. Occ.—agric. and dairy farms; manf. of fiannels, coarse cloths, gloves, &c., with foundries, coal, lead, iron, flint, and slate works. Dio.—St. Asaph. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bor. 1.

Abergeley, 6, a hathing place.

*Denbigh, 6, with an anc. cas., over-looking the vale of Clwyd; manf. of shoes, gloves.

Llangollen, 5, amidst beautiful scenery. Rusbon, 15, iron works. Wrexham, 8, iron works.

Cel. Sites.—Denbigh Cas. is connected with sev. events in the Wars of the Roses, and in the great Civil War bet. Charles its and the Parl. Offa's Dyke, made by Offa, King of Mercis, formed the boundary bet. England and Wales, and of which sev. mounds remain.

4. Ca(e)enarvon, cap. Carnarvon.—Ar. 579 sq. miles; pop. 106,122.

-mountainous, enclosing some narrow valleys; Mts. Pen-maen-Mawr, 1,540 ft.; Carnedd-Llewellyn, 3,469 ft.; Slowdon, 8,590 ft.; the district round is called *Snowdonia*. Clim.—on the coast is mild but moist; cold in the interior. Mins.—are slate, copper, lead, and limestone, Occ.—past. and slate quarrying. Dio.—Bangor. Mems. 10 Parl.—Co. 1, Bor. 1.

Bangor, 14, a bishop's see, bathing place; nr. are the Penrhyn slate quarries.

Caracrorom, 9, bathing place, fine scenery, with anc. cas.; nr. is the Manai Strait.

Cel. Sites.—Carnarvon Cas. was built by Edw. 1st, in 1284, to overawe the Welsh, and in it his son Edw. 2nd was born, Ap. 25, 1284. Conway Cas. was also built by Edw. 1st about 1284.

5. MERIONETHSHIBE, cap. Dolgelly.—Ar. 602 sq. miles; pop. 47,369.

Surf.—mountainous, with sev. fine valleys, of which Festiniog is the most. cel. Mts. Arran-Fowdy, 2,955 ft.; Cader Idris, 2,914 ft. Clim.—cold and rainy. Miss.—elate, lime, lead, and copper. Occ.—past. and dairy; manf. of fiannels, slate and lime works, lead and copper mining. Die.—West pt. in Bangor; East pt. in St. Asaph. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 1, Bor. none.

Bala, 6, stockings and gloves. Harlech, once the cap. now a vil. Barmouth, 8, a bathing place.

Towyn, 2, a summer resort.

Dolgelly, 2, coarse woollens; here Owen
Glendwr held a parl, in 1404.

6. MONTGOMERY, cap. Montgomery.—Ar. 755 sq. miles; pop. 67.789.

Surf.—The West is open moorland, the Centre is mountainous, the East contains sev. beautiful valleys. Clim.—mild and moist in the valleys, cold in the high grounds. Mins.—elate, granite, greenstone, and lead. Occ.—past. and agric., with manf. of flannels, slate quarrying, and lead mining. Dio.—St. Asaph. Mems. to Parl .- Co. 1, Bor. 1.

Newtown, 5, flannels.

*Montgomery, 5, in a fine sit, with ruins of a cas, i here the last bat. bet. Weish and Eug, was fought in 1294.

**Welshpool, 7, in a fine sit, manf. of fine sit, manf. of fine sit of the native princes.

Cel. Site.—Offa's Dyke traverses the county from N. to S. a little to the E. of Welshpool and Montgomery.

LESSON 44.—101. 6 Counties in South Wales.

7. CARDIGAN, cap. Cardigan.—Ar. 693 sq. miles; pop. 73,488.

Surf .- The coast is level, the interior is mountainous, enclosing many valleys. Mt.—Pinlymmon, 2,463 ft. Clim.—severe in winter, and the winds violent.

Mins.—slate, copper, lead, and zinc. Occ.—past., manf. of flannels, gloves, with lead and copper mining, and slate quarrying. Dio.—St. David's. Mems. to Parl .- Co. 1, Bor. 1.

grt. trade, an anc. cas. *Cardigan, 3, seaport, anc. cas.

Aberystwith, 6, scaport, bathing place, | Lampeter, 2, a theolog. col. for candidates grt. trade, an anc. cas. | for orders in the Ch. of Eng.

8. RADNORSHIRE, cap. Presteign.—Ar. 425 sq. miles; pop. 25,428.

Surf.—mountainous, exc. the E. which is undulating; chf. ht., Radnor Forest, 2,163 ft., once covered with wood, now only with heath. Clim.—very cold in winter. Mins.—slate, limestone, sandstone, Occ.—Past. with some agric. winter. Mins.—slate, limestone, sandstone, O. Dio.—St. David's. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 1, Bor. 1.

Knighton, 5, nr. Offa's Dyke. *Presteign, 3.

9 Brecknock, cap. Brecknock.—Ar. 719 sq. miles; pop. 59,904.

Surf. mountainous, enclosing many beautiful valleys. Mt.—Brecknock Beacon, 2,862 ft. Clim.—mild in the valleys. cold with much rain on the higher grounds. Miss.—red sandstone, coal, copper, lead, iron, and limestone. Occ.—past., manf. of coarse woollens, and iron works. Dio.—St. David's. Mems. to Parl.-Co. 1, Bor. 1.

*Brecknock, 6, an anc. tn. with a cas. Builth, 3, nr, are mineral springs. Hay, 4. D 2

52 EUROPEAN GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY. [Lesson 45.

10. GLAMORGAN, cap. Cardiff.—Ar. 855 sq. miles; pop. 896,010.

Surf .- mountainous in the North and Cent.; the peninsula of Gower is reary level, the vale of Glamorgan is undulating. Clim.—mild and moist on the coast, cold but healthy in the interior. Mins.—In the N. and Cent. is the great Welsh coal-field with iron-stone, in other parts are lime, lead, mart, become continuing and iron works, with dairy and agric. Dio.—Llandaff. Mems. to Parl .- Co. 2, Bors. 4.

Aberdare, 40, tron works,

*Merthyr-Tydvil, 96, iron foundries, coal an anc, cas.,

Cel. Sites. -The castles of Cardiff, Neath, and Swansea. At St. Fagan's, nr. Llandaff, Cromwell def. the Royalists in 1648.

11. CA(E)RMARTHEN, cap. Carmarthen.—Ar. 947 sq. miles; pop. 116,944.

Surf .- partly mountainous and partly undulating; the most extensive vale is that of Towy; chf. ht. is Black Mt. range. Clim.—is moist and moderately mild. Mins.—The S. part forms a portion of the Welsh coal-field; in other parts are the old red sandstone, with iron, lead, lime, siate. Occ.—agric. and past, with iron and tin working. Dio.—St. David's. Mems. to Part.—Co. 2, Bor. 1.

and iron works. Dynevor, nr. Liandello, another resid. of the native princes.

*Ca(e)rmarthen, 10, a seaport, once a Llandeilo-Vawr, 4, fiannels; nr. are coal resid. of the Weish princes; nr. are tin mines. Lianelly, 18, seaport, copper and iron works.

12. Pembrokeshire, cap. Pembroke.—Ar. 628 sq. miles; pop. 91.936.

Surf.—is undulating exc. the N., which is hilly. Clim.—in the S. is mild and moist, in the N. cold. Mins.—coal, lime, slate, and marl. Occ.—past. and agric. with coal mining, slate quarrying, and fisheries. Dio.—St. David's. Mens. to Parl.—Co. 1, Bors. 2.

*Haverford-West, 6, a river port; here many Fleinings settled in the reign of Henry Isa.

Milford, 8, a seaport, packets to Ireland.

Milford, 8, a seaport, packets to Ireland.

Henry 7th; one mile dist. is Pater or leaved; anc. Menevia, the metropolitan see of Wales.

Tenby, 3, a bathing place.

Pembroke Dock, with gov. dockyards and arsenal.

LESSON 45 .- 102. BRIEF HISTORY a.-BRITISH PERIOD, 55 B.C. to 51 A.D.—When Britain was invaded by the Roman General, Julius Cæsar, 55 years before Christ, it was occupied by various tribes who had originally come from Gaul and Belgium. These were independent of, and frequently hostile to each other; but whenever a powerful invasion was made, the tribes formed a political confederacy under one General-in-chief.

. The principal tribes were the following:-

1. Cantii in Kent

6. Trinobantes in Essex.

 Ordovices in N. Wales.
 Demētae in W. Wales.
 Silūres in S. East Wales. 7. Iceni in Sussex.
8. Belgae in Hanpa.
8. Coritavi in Lincolu.
9. Brigantes in York, Lanc.
14. Duotrige in Dorset.
15. Dumnonii in Cornwall.
16. Cornwii in Cheshire.

b. The Britons were Celts of the Cymry branch, whose descendants are the modern Welsh. They were divided into several classes, namely, 1. the Druids or Priests; 2. the Bards or Poets; 3. the Equites or chief warriors; and 4. the common people. 1. The Bruids possessed the greatest moral authority. They acknowledged a Supreme Being with many inferior gods; inculcated the eternal transmigration of souls; practised their rites in dark groves; venerated the oak and mistletoe; directed not only religious duties but the education of

youth, and taught their disciples astronomy, astrology, magic, &c. 2. The Bards were a branch of the Druids, and chanted not only the praises of their gods, but the genealogies and exploits of their chiefs, accompanying their songs with an instrument called the *chrotta*. 8. The *Equites* possessed the military power, and to this class their hereditary chiefs belonged. 4. The common people appear to have possessed more liberty than those in Gaul.

Most of the tribes practised both pasturage and agriculture. They had no fortresses; their dwellings were small round huts, a number of which enclosed They had no by a ditch formed a town. Their boats, called cor dcles, were made of light osiers. They tattooed their bodies and stained them blue and green with woad; the poorest were clad only in the skins of beasts, others in enequered mantles and close trousers, called braccae. Though they shaved their chins, they suffered their moustaches and hair to grow. Their arms were a small shield, javelins, and a pointless sword. They fought from chariots, having scythes affixed to the and a pointers would. They fought from chariots, having soythes since to the arises. The warrior drove the chariot and was attended by a servant who carried his weapons. The tribes in the South West were more civilised than the rest; exchanging with the ancient Phoenicians, as for ivory bracelets, necklaces, &c.

LESSON 46.—103. Roman Britain, a.d. 51 to a.d. 426. a. -Though Cæsar had exacted the submission of several of the chiefs, yet the country was not actually subjugated till about A.D. 51. The Roman sway extended from A.D. 51 to A.D. 426, when the Roman troops were finally withdrawn.

For administrative purposes, the Romans divided the country into five large provinces, namely:-

- 1. Britannia Prima, which comprised all the country South of the Thames and the Severn.
- 2. Britannia Secunda, which comprised modern Wales, Monmouth and Hereford.
- 3. Flavia Caesariensis, which comprised the country lying N. of the Thames and S. of the Humber, and between the German Ocean on the East and the Severn on the West.
- 4. Maxima Caesariensis, which contained all the country N. of the Humber as far as the wall (vallum) of Hadrian, which extended from a little North of the Tyne to the Solway Frith.
- 5. Valentia, which extended from Hadrian's Wall to the Frith of Forth and the wall of Antoninus.

The Northern part of the Island, which was never conquered by the Romans, was called Caledonia, of which the East part was occupied by the Picti, and the West part by the Scoti. These tribes afterwards amalgamated.

b. During this period, the Romans introduced their language, dress, and b. During this period, the Romans introduced their language, dress, and manners; encouraged learning and civilisation; constructed excellent military roads and splendid buildings; and improved the general dwellings of the people. During this period, also, the Britons had embraced Christianity, established Episcopacy, and founded Bishoprics in London, York, Lincoln, Liandaff, and Caerleon in Wales. The flower of the British youth, however, had been so trequently withdrawn to recruit the Roman armies in other countries, that the nation had become comparatively feeble.

LESSON 47.—104. SAXON PRRIOD, A.D. 449 to A.D. 990. a.— On the withdrawal of the Romans from the island, the British chiefs were either so enfeebled or disunited, that they were unable effectually to repel the repeated incursions of the Northern barbarians, In this emergency, Vortigern of Kent is said to have invited, in A.D. 449, the brothers Hengist and Horsa, Jutish leaders, to assist the Britons against their enemies. The offer was accepted, and the invaders were repulsed. Soon, however, quarrels ensued between the Britons and their allies, when the latter turned against their employers, and, having called to their aid fresh forces from their

native country, defeated the Britons in several engagements, and gradually wrested district after district from them.

These foreigners were all of kindred origin; the Jutes came from Jutland, These foreigners were an or kindred origin; the Jules came from Stewick, and the Saxons from N. Germany. The conquest of the Eastern and Central parts of Britain by the Anglo-Saxons occupied about 130 years from the landing of Hengist. They succeeded in forming one Juliah kingdom (Kent), 3 Saxon (Essex, Sussex, and Wessex), and 4 Anglian (Bernicia, Deira, East Anglia, and Mercia), in all eight, called the Uctarchy. As Bernicia and Deira, however, were united about 617 A.D. into one kingdom, Northumbria, the term Heptarchy or seven kingdoms, is generally employed. In Al. 800 Egbert, having become king of Wessex, after consolidating his own dominions, gradually extended his sway by conquering Kent in 819, Essex in 824, and Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia in 827. He thus became Monarch of all Saxon England, and virtually put an end to the Heptarchy.

The following Table shows the formation of the Saxon Kinedoms :-

		, -			and the sum of the sum		
Kingdom			Tribe	Date	Modern Counties		
1.	Kent		Jutes.	457	Kent.		
2.	Виввех .		Bouth Saxons	491	Sussex and Surrey.		
8.	Wessex .		West Saxons	519	Hante, Isle of Wight, Berks, Wilts, Dorsel part of Devon.		
	Essex .		East daxons	527	Basex, Middlesex, S. of Hertford.		
) a. Bernicia b. Deira .		Angles	547	Northumberland and S. E. of Scotland.		
ъ.	b. Detra .		đo.	560	Yorkshire, Durham.		
6.	East Anglia		do.	571	Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, &c.		
7.	Mercia .		do.	585	Cheshire, Derby, and midland counties.		

b. The Britons, during this long period, though gradually driven from the Eastern and Central parts of the island, continued to occupy the entire Western Shore, and maintained their independence for centuries. This district was divided into four distinct Principalities, namely:

British Kingdoms Modern Counties

1

the S. West of Scot. from the Solway to the Clyde; the cap, was Alcheyd, or mod. Dumbarion.

Cumberland, Westmorland, and Lancashire, from the Solway to 1. Strath Clyde . 2. Cumbria the Mersey.
Wales and Monmouth, freq. div. into sev. principalities. 3. Cambria 4. Damnoula or Cornwall and West Devon. WestWales

Strath-Clyde and Cumbria were generally united under one sovereign. The monarch reigning in 827 acknowledged the supremacy of the Saxon Egbert, Gradually these monarchs extended their sway over the whole of Scotland, which they held as independent sovereigns, while they paid vassalage for this portion of their dominions. In 1237, the two districts were separated, Strath-Clyde being joined to Scotland, while Cumbria was formally annexed to England by Henry 3rd.

Cambria or Wales continued a separate and independent principality till 1282,

when it was subdued by Edward 1st, and annexed to the English Crown. Damnonta or Cornwall, &c., was annexed to England by Athelstane in 927 A.D. c. When the Saxons came to Britain, they were Pagans, and continued such for 150 years, till they were converted by Augustine, the monk, and his fellow missionaries from Rome. Hence, the Saxons were brought into subjection to the Bishop of Rome. The British Church, on the contrary, was independent of, and opposed to any union with Rome, appointed its own bishops, observed its own ordinances, and regulated its affairs by its own synods. Among the Saxons, the following ranks existed:—1. The Princes, who reigned by hereditary right. 3. The Sand, earl-cundmen or thane-born, were next in rank, and generally had large estates. 3. The Sith-cundmen, were thanes of a lower grade, occupying an intermediate position between the higher nobility and the ceorls. 4. The Ceorts or Plebelans were freemen according to law, but dependent on the nobility, attached to the glebe, and unable to change their lords. 5. The Theorem Serfs were slaves in the full sense of the word, and were mostly of Celtic or Roman origin.

LESSON 48.-105a, DANISH PERIOD, 1017 to 1041.—The Danes (or rather the Scandinavian Pirates who came from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) made their first attempt on England about 787 A.D., by landing in Dorset, and plundering the neighbouring country. Similar incursions were made from time to time in other parts of England. Though repeatedly defeated by various Saxon monarchs, yet the Danes had succeeded before 990 A.D. in permanently establishing themselves in a district on the East coast of England, called Danelagh. This extended from the Tees to the Thames, and comprised the Eastern shores of York, Lincoln, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex. At length, under Sweyn and Canute (A.D. 1017), they became masters of England, and retained their position till 1041, when, on the death of Hardicanute, the crown again devolved on an Anglo-Saxon sovereign, Edward, surnamed the Confessor, who reigned till 1066 A.D.

b. THE NORMANS, A.D. 1966.—On the death of Edward, William, Duke of Normandy in France, laid claim to the Crown of England, landed with a large army, and at the battle of Hastings defeated and slew Harold, who had been made Sovereign by the will of his countrymen. Shortly after the battle, William was declared King, and reigned from 1966 to 1987. William introduced into England what is called the Feudul System. By this, the country was divided into 60,000 baronies and fiefs, which were held on condition that the occupiers joined the king's standard whenever they were required. By William's conquest of England, Normandy and the Channel Islands were annexed to the English Crown. William was succeeded by his son William 2nd, who reigned from 1967 to 1100. At his death, Henry, a younger son of William 1st, succeeded, and reigned from 1100 to 1135, leaving only a daughter, Mastida, who had married Geoffrey, Earl of Anjou. The throne was then usurped by his nephew Stephen, who reigned from 1136 to 1154.

House of Plantagemet.—On the death of Stephen, Henry 2nd, son of Matilda and the first of the house of Plantagenst, ascended the throne, and reigned from 1184 to 1189. Henry was king of England and duke of Normandy, Britians, Anjon, Polion, Guienne and Gascony in France; and in 1172 he subdued freland, which he annexed to the English crown. Richard 1st succeeded his father Henry, and reigned from 1189 to 1216. John, by his folly, lost Normandy and the other French possessions, and was compelled by his barons in 1216 to sign Magna Charta, which secures to every Englishman personal freedom. Henry 3rd, a feeble prince, succeeded his father John, and reigned from 1216 to 1272. In his reign the House of Commons, through the influence of the Earl of Leicester, took its rise in 1265. Edward 1st, son of Henry 3rd, succeeded and reigned from 1272 to 1307. He proved himself a sagacious and skilful prince; in 1283 he conquered Wales, which he annexed to England; and in 1296 Sooiland, which he rendered fedudatory. His son Edward 2nd, who succeeded and reigned from 1307 to 1327, lost the battle of Bannockburn in 1314; and was deposed by his wife and Mortime her paramour, by whose instigation he was cruelly murdered in Berkeley Castle in 1327. His son Edward 3rd, who succeeded, reigned from 1327 to 1371. Rdward, who carried on many wars in France, exhibited all the qualities of an able general, while he was not forgetful of his duties as a sovereign, for he encouraged manufactures and commerce at home, and induced many foreign artisans to settle in England. In his reign, Wickliffe began to expose the unscriptural tenets and practices of the Church of Rome. Edward was succeeded by his grandson Richard 2nd, the son of the Black Prince, who reigned from 1377 to 1399, when he was deposed by his coustin Henry, son of John of Ghent, Duke of Lancaster, and comfined in Pontefract Castle where he died soon after, either by violence or starvation.

- c. HOUSE OF LANCASTER—(badge a Red Rose).—On the death of Richard 2nd, Henry of Lancaster usurped the throne, and reigned as Henry 4th, from 1399 to 1413, when he was succeeded by his son Henry 5th, 1413 to 1422. Henry, who was a skilful warrior, advanced an absurd claim to the throne of France, which he endeavoured to substantiate, but died in 1422, leaving an unsettled kingdom to his infant son Henry 6th, who reigned from 1422 to 1461. In 1455, Edward, Duke of Fork, began to urge his claims to the throne, as they were stronger than those of the reigning sovereign. This led to a series of conflicts called the Wars of the Roses. At the battle of Wakefield, 1460, Edward was defeated and slain; but his son Fdward, then about 20 years of age, prosecuted the war; and after the second battle of St. Alban's was proclaimed king by the title of Edward 4th, March 3, 1461. After various vicissitudes, Henry 6th was captured and committed to the Tower, where he died May 22, 1471.
- d. HOUSE OF YORK—(badge a White Rose).—Edward 4th reigned from 1461 to 1483; when he was succeeded by his son Edward 5th, a mere child, who within 10 weeks was confined to the Tower and there murdered, when his uncl

Richard ascended the throne in 1483, as Richard 3rd. Shortly after Richard was opposed by Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who claimed descent on the mother's side from the house of Lancaster. At the decisive Battle of Bosworth Field, in 1485, Richard was killed, when Henry was immediately halled as King Henry 7th. He was the first of the House of Tudor, and by marrying Elizabeth, daughter and helress of Edward 4th, he effected the Union of the House of York and Lancaster.

Lesson 49.-106a. House of Tudor.—Henry 7th reigned from 1485 to 1509, when he was succeeded by his son Henry 8th, 1509 to 1547. In this important reign the doctrines of the Reformation began to spread; the severance of the Church of England from that of Rome was completed, and the general suppression of the Monasteries effected. In 1536 Wales was formally incorporated with England. Edward 6th, when only nine years of age, succeeded his father, Henry 8th, 1547 to 1553. In this short reign, by the exertions of the young king's able advisers, the Reformation was advanced, various superstitious ceremoniae were abolished, and a new Liturgy in English adopted. On the death of Edward in 1553, his sister Mary succeeded, and reigned from 1558 to 1558. Mary strenuously endeavoured to restore popery; imprisoned and put to a cruel death many of the best and noblest of the English reformers, and attempted to alter the succession to the throne. At her death, Elizabeth, her sister, daughter of Henry 8th and queen Anne Boleyn, ascended the throne 1558, and reigned to 1603. Elizabeth re-established the Protestant Religion, encouraged trade, navigation, and colonisation; ruled with great vigour and general prudence, acting on the principles of rigid economy and avoidance of debt; defeated the Spanish Armada, and raised ther country to a high state of prospectiv.

b. House of Stuart.—On the death of Elizabeth, March 24, 1603, James 6th of Scotland, son of Darnley and Mary Queen of the Scots, ascended the throne as James 1st of England, and reigned from 1603 to 1625. By James's accession, the crowns of England and Scotland became united, though their parliaments continued for a time distinct. In 1611, the present authorised version of the Bible was published. In 1625, James was succeeded by his unfortunate son Charles 1st, who was beheaded in 1649. This was not the act of the people of England, but only of a few ambitious individuals. The Commonwealth under the Cromwells lasted from 1649 to 1660; when Charles 2nd, son of Charles 1st, ascended the throne of his ancestors. This is called the Restoration. At Charles's death in 1685, his brother James 2nd, a bigoted Roman Catholic, ascended the throne. James, having attempted to reimpose popery on the nation and alter the constitution, and having in other things violated the fundamental laws of the realm, was, by a free parliament, expelled from the throne in 1683; when William, Prince of Orange (nephew and son-in-law of James), and his wife Mary were invited to assume the Sovereignty. This svent is called the Revolution of 1685. On the death of William in 1702, Anne, daughter of James 2nd, ascended the throne, to the exclusion of her father, who was still living, and of her brother, who had been brought up a papist. Anne reigned from 1702 to 1714. On May 1, 1707, the Union of England and Souland was completed under the name of Great Britain. By this act, the Succession to the throne was vested in the Princess Sophia of Hanover and her heirs, being Protestants, and that there should be one Parliament of the United Kingdom, to which 16 Scotch Peers and 45 Commoners should be elected. The first United Parliament of Great Britain met on Oct. 23, 1707. Anne died Aug. 1714, and was immediately succeeded by Georye 1st, Elector of Hanover, son of the late Electrees Sophia, and the nearest Protestant male heir.

c. House of Hanover.—George 1st reigned from 1714 to 1727. In Sept. 1715, the Barl of Mar raised a Rebellion in Scotland to place on the throne the son of James 2nd, usually called the Pretender. The Rebellion was suppressed in Feb. 1716. George 2nd succeeded his father in 1727, and reigned till 1760. His reign was disturbed in 1745 by an attempt to place on the throne Charles Edward, son of the old Pretender. This second Rebellion at first gained many adherents, but was ultimately crushed at Culloden, when Charles Edward with difficulty escaped to France. George 3nd succeeded his grandfather in 1760, and reigned till 1820. In this long reign many important events occurred, of which only two or three can be mentioned here. In 1775 the British American Colonies revolted from the mother country, and, with the aid of France, obtained their independence under the title of the United States of America. This was recognised by England in 1782. In 1789, the First French Revolution broke out, which soon led to a general European war. In 1800, the Legislative Union of

Ireland with Great Britain was effected, when the united Parliament was henceforth to be styled the *Imperial Parliament*. This important measure, though much opposed in the Irish Parliament, was carried in the British by a majority in the Commons of 208 to 26, and in the Lords of 75 to 7. On June 18, 1815, the decisive *Battle of Waterloo* was fought, when Napoleon 1st was driven from the throne of France, which soon led to a General Peace,

George 4th, who succeeded his father, reigned from 1820 to 1830. In 1829 the Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill was passed, by which Roman Catholics became eligible to any office except to that of Lord High Chancellor. William 4th succeeded his brother George 4th, and reigned from 1830 to 1837. In 1832, the Reform Bill was passed. In 1837, Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent and niece of William 4th, ascended the throne. In March 1857, the great Indian Mutiny broke out, which was with difficulty suppressed in 1859. In September 1858, the Government of India was transferred from the East India Company to the British Crown. In July 1869, the Irish Protestant Church was by Act of Parliament not only dissessablished but disendoved.

SCOTLAND.

- **LESSON 50.**—Physical.—**107**a. Scotland is bounded on N. by the Atlantic; E. by the German Ocean. The length is 270 miles. Breadth varies from 40 miles to 150 miles. Area, exclusive of the islands, is 26,014 sq. miles; ar. of the islands is 4,671 sq. miles; total 30,685 sq. miles. Pop. of the mainland and islands is 3,358,613. Cap. EDINBURGH.
- b. The Coasts of Scotland are much indented, forming a length of line extending nearly 2,500 miles. The coasts are in general bold and rocky; the chief exceptions on the East are the portions between St. Abb's Head and the Firth of Tay, and between Burgh Head and the Ord of Caithness. On the West, the coast of Ayrshire as far South as Girvan, and the coast about the head of the Solway Firth are low.
- c. The chief Inlets on the East are the Firths of Forth, Tay, Moray, and Cromarty. On the North, Dunnet Bay, Kyle of Tongue and Eribol. On the West, Lochs Broom, Torridon, Hourn, Sunart, Linne (leen), Fyne, Clyde, Glenluce, Wigton, and Solway.
- d. Capes.—On the East coast, St. Abb's Head, 286 ft.; Fife Ness, Buchan Ness, 130 ft.; Kinnaird's Head and Tarbet Ness, 175 ft. On the North, Duncansby Head and Dunnet Head. On the West are Capes Wrath, 600 ft.; Ardnamurchan Point; Mull of Cantire on the S. of Cantire; Corsill Point; Mull of Galloway, 325 ft., and Burrow Head in Wigton.
- 108. Seas, Straits. &c.—On the East, the German Ocean. On the North and West, Pentland Firth, between Caithness and the Orkney Isles (remarkable for the strength and rapidity of its tides and currents); the Atlantic Ocean; the Great and Little Minch, between the Outer and Inner Hebrides; the Sound of Sleat, between Skye and the mainland; Sound of Mull, between Mull and the mainland; Sound of Jura, the North Channel between Scotland and Ireland.
- 109. The Islands comprise four groups—1, the Orkney Islands; 2, the Shetland Isles; 3, the Hebrides; and 4, the islands in the Firth of Clyde.
- 1. The Oriney Islands, separated from the mainland by the Pentland Firth, amount in number to 67, of which 27 are inhabited. They comprise Pomöna or Mainland, cap. Kirkwall; Hoy, on which is Wart Hill, 1,556 ft.; North and South Ronaldsha, Westra, and others.

- 2. The Shetland Isles, which lie further North, consist of about 100, of which 24 are inhabited. The Area is about 530 sq. miles; pop. about 31,600; the principal are Maisland, the largest (60 m. by from 8 m. to 24 m.), Yell, Unst, and Felter.
- 8. The Hebrides or Western Islands consist of the Inner and the Outer Hebrides. The Inner Hebrides are those which lie adjacent to the mainland, and include—1. Skye, 547 sq. miles; pop. 18,700 (with the adjacent isles of Rasasy, Rona, Scalpa, Canna, Rum, Rig, and Muck, all of which are mountainous, with a moist climate, and poor scil). 2. Mull, 330 sq. miles, mountainous; cf mt. Ben More, cap. Tobermory. (Near Mull are Coll, Tiree, Skerryvore, on the last is a lighthouse. Iona or Icolmbil, held sacred in the middle ages for its religious and educational establishments. Skaffa, cel. for its basaltic columns and caverns.) 3. Jura, 130 sq. miles, cf. mt., the Paps of Jura, 2,668 ft. (near are the isles of Colonsay and Oronsay). 4. Islay, 240 sq. miles, with much fertile land, and fam. for its whisky; pop. 10,332; cap. Lochindaal. The Outer Hebrides are situated West of the Minsh, and include—1. The large island of Levis with Harris; the North part is called Levis, 577 sq. miles; the South part Harris, 191 sq. miles; the two parts are united by an isthmus. Pop. 23,660; cap. Stornoway. The clim. is mild but stormy, and the Soil peaty. The northern extremity is called the But of Levis. 2. North Ust (wist), 118 sq. miles. 3. Benbecula, 43 sq. miles. 4. South Ust, 127 sq. miles. 5. The Barra group and several smaller islands.
- 4. The Islands in the Firth of Clyde comprise—1. Bute, 15 m. by 5 m., mountainous in the N., fertile in the S. 2. Arran, 20 m. by 11 m., mountainous; ct, mt. Goat Fell, 2,874 ft. 3. Great and Little Cumbray. 4. Allsa Crag in the Firth of Clyde. 5. Inchmarnock mr. Bute, and Holy Island mr. Arran.
- 5. Besides the above there are some isolated rocks and islets on the East coast, as Bass-Rock and May Island in the Firth of Forth, and Bell-Rock in the Firth of Tay.
- Scotland in its general outline consists of two distinct portions—the Highlands and the Lowlands. The Highlands include the Northern and Western portions of the country, and are separated from the Lowlands by a broad valley, called Strathmore (or great strath), which extends across the country diagonally, from near Stonehaven on the German Ocean to the banks of the Forth on the West of Stirling. This district, occupied with lofty mountains, presents a bleak and rugged aspect. On the coasts agriculture is followed, but the interior valleys are on so high a level that they admit only in scattered patches the culture of the coarser kinds of grain, particularly oats and bigg. The Lowlands include the districts lying East and South of Strathmore, and extend to the English border. The arable lands are almost solely comprised in broad flat valleys, chiefly along the friths, called Straths. Several of these are noted for their fertility.
- b. Mountains.—In Scotland there are three mountain regions.

 1. The Northern Highlands, lying West of the Caledonian Canal, occupy portions of Sutherland, Ross, and Inverness.

 2. The Grampian region, lying between the Caledonian Canal and Strathmore, occupy parts of Aberdeen, Perth, and Inverness. The greater portion of this region consists of high rocks and naked moors, interspersed with numerous bogs.

 3. The Cheviot and Lowther groups occupy portions of the S. of Scotland.
- 1. Of the Northern Highlands, the highest mts. are—Ben Attow, 4.000 ft.; Ben Wyvis, 3,700 ft.; and Ben Dearg, 3,600 ft. 2. Of the Grampians, the highest are—Ben Nevis, 4,873 ft., the highest in Britain; Ben-Maodui (dwee), 4,300 ft.; Cairn-toul, 4,200 ft.; Cairn-gorm, 4,100 ft.; Ben-Avon, 4,000 ft.;

- Ben-Lawers, 3,900 ft.; Ben-More, 3,800 ft.; and Ben-Lomond, 3,200 ft. 3. In South Scotland, the highest are—the Chevior Hills, 2,600 ft; the Lowther Hills in Dumfries, 2,600 ft.; Lammermoor Hills in Haddington, 1,600 ft. Pentland Hills, Edinburghshire, 1,800 ft.; Broadlaw Hills in Peebles, 2,700 ft. Other smaller ranges are the Sidlaw Hills in Forfar; Ochill Hills in Perth; and Campsie Fells in Stirlingshire.
- c. Plains.—The Plains of Scotland are not extensive. The principal are Statistical extending from Stonehaven to Stirling; Clydesdale, the Plain of Ayr, Tweedale, and the plain of Catthness.
- d. Rivers.—The principal on the East side are—the Tweed, 96 miles, the Tyne of Haddington; Forth 60 miles; Tay 100 miles; S. and N. Esk; the Dee 87 miles; Don 50 miles; Deveran; the Spey 96 miles; and the Findhorn. On the South and West coasts are the Esk, Annan 45 miles; Nith 60 miles; Dee of Kircudbright; the Ayr; and the Clyde 98 miles.
- e. The principal Lakes are Loch Shin, 17 miles by 1 in Sutherland; Maree 12 miles by 3, and Fannich, 7 miles by 1½ in Ross; Lochs Ericht, Ness, Oich, Lochie, and Morrer in Inverness; Katrine 8 miles by ½, Tay 14 miles by 1½, Rannoch and Earn in Perth; Awe, 23 miles by 1½ in Argyle; Lomond 24 miles by 7 in Dumbarton; Leven 4 miles by 8 in Kinross; and Doon 6 miles by 1 in Ayr. Lomond, Katrine, and some others are noted for their picturesque scenery.
- 111a. The Climate is similar to that of England, but cooler in summer and warmer in winter; except in the central and elevated regions, where the climate is chill and humid.

The Western and Southern parts are milder than the Eastern, but more exposed to frequent and heavy rains; while the Eastern, though drier, are subject in Spring and early Summer to cold East Winds. The Climate, on the whole, is healthy and favourable to longevity. The prevailing Winds are West and South West; but in Spring and early Summer, North and North East.

The maon of Wint, at Edinburgh is 389, Perth 37°, Aberdeen 39°, Glasgow 38°, The mean of Sum, at Edinburgh is 57°, Perth 57°, Aberdeen 58°, Glasgow 57°, b. Mean Ann. Edinfull at Edinburgh 35 in., Perth 30 in., Aberdeen 37 in., Glasgow, 15°, Mean Ann. Edinfull at Edinburgh 35 in., Perth 30 in., Aberdeen 37 in., Glasgow, 15°, Mean Ann. Edinfull at Edinburgh 35°, Perth 30°, Perth 30°,

- 112a. Soil.—Nearly three-fourths of Scotland are unfit for tillage, being occupied by high moorlands, which afford only a scarty pasturage for sheep and small breeds of black cattle. In the valleys and plains of the Eastern and Southern districts, however, the soil is fertile.
- b. The Minerals are of the most useful description—coal, lead, and iron; granite, freestone, and limestone; slate and marble. Small quantities of silver and gold have also been found. The great coal district extends across the country diagonally from the Firth of Tay to Ayrshire. Iron-stone is found in the same district. Granite is widely diffused, the most important quarries are in Aberdeenshire. Lead abounds in the Lowther Hills, slate in Argyle, and marble in Sutherland, &c.
- c. Natural Curiosities.—Like other mountainous countries, Scotland abounds in wild and picturesque scenes, lakes, cataracts, and caverns, many of which have been rendered famous by the writings of Sir Walter Scott. The Falls of the Ciyde nr. Lanark; the Fall of Fyres on the East side of Loch Ness; the scenery of Loch Lomond; the Trosach's between Lochs Katrine and Achray; the rocks off the coast of Aberdeenshire, often assuming different forms of archae and pillars; the Isle of Staffa, one of the Inner Hebrides, with its basaltic columns, and other curiosities, are objects which strike every admirer of nature as singularly imposing.

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d. The Animals, both wild and tame, are similar to those of England. The nightingale, however, is unknown in Scotland. The rivers, especially the Tweed, Tay, Dee, and Spey, abound with salmon and trout, and the seas with herring, cod, and other fish.

LESSON 52.—POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—113. Scotland contains 32 counties, namely:—

	y Norther	n Counnes.	
Counties.	County Towns.	Counties.	County Towns.
1. { a. Orkney b. Shetland 2. Căithness 3. Sutherland 4. { a. Ross b. Crom'arty	. Kirkwall . Lerwick . Wick . Dornoch	5. Inverness 6. Nairn	. Inverness . Nairn . Elgin . Banff
	9 Central	Counties.	
11. Forfar	. Forfar . Cupar . Kinross	15. Perth	. In'verary . Dumbarton
	14 Souther	n Counties.	
19. Linithgow	EDINBURGH Haddington Greenlaw Jedburgh	26. Dumfriës	. Lanark Renfrew Rothsay Ayr
25. Peebles	. Peebles	32. Wigton	. Wigton

LESSON 53.—INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS.—**114**p. Agriculture.—In the valleys and plains, agriculture is pursued with eminent skill and industry.

b. The Farms, held almost universally on Leases, vary from 50 to 1,000 acres. The fields are not usually separated by hedges as in England, but by stone, walls. The Products comprise wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, turnips, &c., which are extensively grown in the plains and valleys. Numbers of sheep and black cattle are fed on the moors and highlands. Many millions of trees have within the last century been planted in various parts of Scotland; though the highlands, islands, and the Western districts are still very bare.

c. Manufactures, &c.—The manufactures comprise cotton, linen, coarse woollens, carpets, paper, loco-motives, and machinery of every kind.

Cotton is chiefly manufactured in Glasgow, Paisley, and Dundee; fine linen at Dundermline; coarse linens, sheetings, sailcloth, &c., at Dundee, Aberdee, Kirkaldy, &c.; coarse woollens, flannels, tweeds, at Galashies, Hawick, Jedburgh, and Aberdeen; carpets, tartans, &c., at Kilmarnock, Stirling, and Bannockburn; stockings at Hawick; silk at Paisley; soap at Glasgow, &c.; heavy hardware at Carron nr. Falkirk; steam engines and machinery at Glasgow; fron ship-building at Greenock, Glasgow, Dumbarton, Aberdeen, &c.; and the distillation of whisky in various parts.

d. The Commerce of Scotland is extensive.

The Imports consist, like those of England, of raw materials for manufactures, as cotton, hemp, flax, and timber; and of colonial produce, as tea, sugar, spirits, wines, &c. The Exports comprise manufactured goods, as cotton, linens, said-cloth, plaids, coarse woollens; with cattle, sheep, coal, iron, salmon, dried and pickled fish.

c. The chief Ports on the East are Leith, Dunbar, Dundee, Arbroath, Mostrose, and Aberdeen. On the West—Port Patrick, Ayr, Greenock, Port Glasgow, and Glasgow.

f. Internal Communications - The Roads throughout are excellent.

Before the rebellion of 1745, the Scottish roads were almost impassable, but shortly after that event several good roads were constructed by the English government to connect the forts North of the Grampians with the Lowlands; and since then, many other roads throughout the country have been formed. Canals, from the mountainous nature of the country, are only few. They comprise the following:—I. One connecting the Forth with the Clyde. 2. The Union Canal connecting Edinburgh with the Forth and Clyde Canal. 3. The Crinan Canal, 5 m. long, across the neck of the Peninsuls of Cantyre. 4. The Caledonian Canal, the most important, connecting Loch Eil on the West with the Moray Firth on the East, 60 m. in length. The total length of the Canals in Scotland is 225 m.

Railways now connect the leading towns as far North as Sutherland, and the mileage in 1864 amounted to above 2,000 miles.

- The North British connects Edinburgh with Berwick-on-Tweed.
 The Caledonian passes in one direction to Edinburgh, and in another to Glasgow.
 A direct line connects Edinburgh with Glasgow.
 The Scottish Central leads through Stirling, Perth, and Inverness to Sutherland; and from another point takes the coast to Aberdeen.
- g. The Fisheries are important, particularly those of herring, cod, and salmon. The whale fishery also employs many vessels.
- EXECUTE 54.—Social Condition.—115a. The Government of Scotland, since the union of the kingdoms in 1707, has been blended with that of England. The Civil Law, however, differs in a few particulars from that of England.
- b. The Court of Session is the highest Civil Court of Scotland, having jurisdiction over all civil questions of whatever nature. The High Court of Justiciary extends to all criminal cases, except those of high treason, which are tried by a special commission in the English form. The inferior courts of law are those of the boroughs, justices of the peace, and sheriffs. Each county has a Lord Lieutenant, a principal Sheriff, called a Sheriff-depute, from his being appointed by the crown. In extensive counties, these sheriffs appoint assistants, called substitutes.
 - c. The Revenue, Debt, Military Service, &c. are included under England.
- **116a.** Religion.—The established form of religion in Scotland is Presbyterian. The principle of this form consists in the complete equality of all its clerical members, who are called *Ministers*; each of whom has a separate Parish of which he performs all the ecclesiastical duties. In the management of the poor and some church functions, the minister is assisted by a body of lay-members called *Elders*, who, in conjunction with the minister, constitute the Kirk-Session which exercises a jurisdiction over the parish.
- b. The Ecclesiastical arrangements are—1. Partihes, of which there are 1,023, each with its Minister, and adjudicatory called the Kirk-Session, composed of the Minister and certain lay Elders. 2. Presbyteries, of which there are 80, each consisting of several parishes united, and each forming a court of judicature for the Union. 3. Synads, of which there are 16, each composed of several presbyteries. 4. The General Assembly, consisting of 368 members (partly laymen, but chiefly ministers, elected by the various presbyteries and Universities), constitutes the Supreme Governing Body, and to which an appeal lies upon every subject. The General Assembly meets every year at Edinburgh, when a High Commissioner, appointed by the King, presides at its debates, and claims a right of con-tituting and dissolving it. Since 1712, the right of appointing to livings has been vested either in the crown or with private parties. A Secession on account of this mode of patronage took place in 1741. In 1834, the Veto Act was passed by the General Assembly modifying the right of patronage, but this act having been rejected by Parliament, a disruption took

place in 1848, when 470 Ministers, along with a large number of adherents, left the Establishment, and formed the Free Church.

- c. The various religious denominations at present existing in Scotland bear the following proportion to the population:—Established Church 34 per cent.; Thied Presbyterian 18 do.; all other churches 16 do. The Episcopalian Church is under 7 bishops. The Roman Catholic Church has many adherents in the Hebrides, and in the countles of Banff and Aberdeen.
- 217a. Education.—Owing to the excellent institution of parish schools the advantages of education are diffused among all classes of the people, except perhaps in some of the remote Highland districts. Most of the private academies also for the middle classes are of a superior kind. There are four Universities; namely Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St. Andrew's.
- A greater proportion of the people both in the upper and middle classes receive a University education than in England, owing to the less expensive charges of the Scotch than of the English Colleges. In their government, the Scotlish colleges differ materially from the English, the students generally living in the towns, without any necessary check upon their private conduct, or even any obligation to attendance, except what arises from the dread of the professor's refusal of a certificate at the close. The ohlef exertions of the professor is bestowed on their Lectures, by which they hope to attract students to their classes. The more diligent combine with their Lectures examinations and exercises.
- b. Language.—In all the Lowlands and Eastern districts, the Language spoken is English, which is continually extending. In the remote Highlands, the people mostly speak the Gaëlio, a dialect of the Celtic.
- c. Literature.—Scotland has produced many writers eminent in their respective departments; in History—Robertson, Hume, and Alison; in Moral and Political Philosophy—Reid, Hume, Adam Smith, Dugald Stewart, Brown and Macculloch; in Divinity—Leighton, Campbell, Macknight, and Chalmers; in Criticism and Polite Literature—Campbell, Jeffreys, Hugh Blair, and Spalding; in Poetry—Thomson, Burns, Beattie, and Scott; in Science—Gregory, Playfair, Leslie, Brewster, and Hugh Miller; and in Medicine—Pringle, Hunter, and Pitcairn. As editors of newspapers, magazines, and reviews, Scotch writers occupy a prominent position.
- 118a. The People.—In the Southern or Lowland districts and the whole of the Eastern coasts, the people are mostly either of Saxon or of Scandinavian origin; while the Highlanders and inhabitants of the islands belong chiefly to the Celtic race.
- b. As a nation, the Scotch may be considered a serious and reflecting people, enterprising, and ambitious of improving their condition. Under these impulses, they quit their native land, and seek either in the metropolis and commercial towns of England, or in distant lands, that wealth and position which they eagerly covet; yet, when they have accomplished their object, they frequently return and spend the evening of their days in Scotland. Among the lower classes, crimes against the order of society are of comparatively rare convrence. The pride of birth is very prevalent among the upper and middle classes, particularly among the Highland clans, which frequently compels them to spend their moderate wealth in outward show rather than in solid comfort.
- c. In their Manners, the Scotch are now much assimilated with those of the English. They are not in general a people fond of amusements; golf and football are the only ones that can be deemed strictly national. Skating and curiing, or the rol ing of smooth stones upon the ice, are also pursued when the season admits. Dancing is much practised, especially by the Highlanders. In regard to Food, the Scotch are in general temperate. The peasantry previously to the advance in wages, were content with the hardest fare. Neither wheaten bread nor animal food formed part of their ordinary diet. Oatmeal was pre-

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pared under the forms of cakes or porridge, and constituted the chief means of subsistence. To this was occasionally added barley broth, with greens or kails, the produce of their little gardens. A favourite dish, called haggis, is formed of a mixture of oatmeal, fat, liver, and onions, boiled up in the bag which composed the stomach of the animal.

d. The Lowland Dress is the same as the English; even the poorest classes are, in general, decently and substantially clothed. The Highlanders, however, still retain the remnants of a national costume peculiar to themselves; the tartan, a mixture of woollen and linen cloth, adorned with stripes crossing each other, and marking the distinction of the clans; the kill or short petiticat, worn by the men, the hose fastened below the knee, which is left bare, and the bonnet for the head.

LESSON 55.—119. DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTIES, TOWNS, AND CRLEBRATED PLACES.

Note.—In the following summaries, only the principal mountains are given. Pers. means parishes.

9 Northern Counties.

Ronaldsha, and many others. Cap. Kirkwall.—Ar. of all 400 sq. miles; pop. 31,272.

Surf.—The shores are bold, the interior is undulating. Clim.—mild and moist; ann. rainfall, 36 inc. Occ.—agric., past., fisheries, and straw-plait. Pars.—18. The Orkney and Shetland Islands form one county, and together send one Mem. to Pars.

Kirkwall, 3, the cap, a seaport, with a | Stromness, 1, a seaport. fine cathed., once a bishop's see.

b. THE SHETLAND ISLES include Mainland, Yell, Unst, and about 27 others. Cap. Lerwick.—Ar. of all 530 sq. miles; pop. 31,605.

Surf.—The shores are rocky; the interior is hilly, covered with heath, and destitute of trees. Clim.—damp and variable, but frost seldom lasts long. Mins.—limestone, gneiss, freestone, slate, with copper and iron. Occ.—sheep, small cattle, and pony rearing, with agric., fisheries, and manf. of coarse woollens. Pars.—12.

Lerwick, 3, a great fishing station. | Scalloway, a scaport.

2. Caithness, cap. Wick.—Ar. 712 sq. miles; pop. 39,989.

Surf.—level, with much moorland; on W. it is mountainous, on S. the Morren Hills. Clim.—cool and moist. Mins.—red sandstone, flagstone, slate, &c. Occ.—agric., fisheries, and past., with stone-quarrying. Fars.—10. Meins. to Park.—Co. 1, Bor. 1.

*Wick, 8, a seaport, cf. seat of the herring | Thurso, 3, seaport, bpl. of Sir John fishery.

3. Sutherland, *cap.* Dornoch.—*Ar.* 1,886 sq. miles; *pop.* 23.686.

Surf.—consists of wide moors, deep valleys, lofty mountains, and deer forests.

Mis.—Ben Clibrig, 3,164 ft.; Ben More, 3,281 ft.; Ben Hee, 2,858 ft. Clim.—
on the E. it is mild; on the high grounds, subject to much rain. Mins.—rock
crystals, red sandstone, limestone, freestone, &c. Occ.—sheep and cattle rearing, fisheries, and some agric. Pars.—14. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 1.

Dornock, a small scaport, once a bishop's the residence of the Duke of Suthersee. Near Golspie is Dumröbin Cas., land.

4. Ross and Cromarty, caps. Dingwall, Cromarty.—Ar. of the united county 3,151 sq. miles; pop. 80,909.

Cromarty consists of 14 detached portions, so intermixed with Ross, that the two are now considered as one county. The large island of Lewis belongs to

Ross-shire. Surf. is wild and mountainous, with extensive moors and lakes, and some fertile land on the numerous streams. Mis.—Ben Wyvis, 3,422 ft; Ben Attow, 4,000 ft. Clim. is very moist on the W., but drier and colder on the B. Mins.—granite, old red sandstone, slate, and limestone. Occ.—agric., sheep-feeding, and fisheries. Pars.—33. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 1.

Dingwall, 2, a scaport.

Orma'arty, 1, a scaport, bpl. of Hugh
Hiller, the geologist.

Stornoway, 2, on the isle of Lewis.

5. INVERNESS' includes besides the mainland, the islands of Skye, Rassay, and the adjacent isles; with the outer Hebrides, Harris, N. and S. Uist, Benbecula, &c. Cap. Inverness.—Ar. of the whole, 4,255 sq. miles; pop. 87,480.

Surf. consists of mountain and moorland, intersected with deep and narrow glens. Lakes and forests of oak, ash, fir, &c., are numerous. Mis.—Ben Nevis, 4,406 ft.; Cairngorm, 4,090 ft. Glens—Glenmore, which stretches through the country, Strath Spey, Glen Spean, Glen Garry, &c. Lakes—Arkaig, Ness, and Laggan. The Caledonian Canal traverses the country from S.W. to N.E. Clim. is very moist on the West, drier on the East. Mins.—slate, granite, and limestone. Occ.—chiefly cattle and sheep rearing, with some agric, and herring fishing, &c. Pars.—24 on the mainland, 12 on the islands. Mems. to Parl.—Oo. 1, Bor. 1.

*Inverness, 14, a scaport delightfully situated, manf. of linens, plaids, and woollen stuffs.

Cel. Sites.—1. Culloden Moor, 5 m. from Inverness, is cel. for the decisive bat. ft. April 16, 1746, which crushed the rebellion of 1745. 2. The valley of Gienmore contains the three military posts of Fort George, Fort Augustus, and Fort William, erected to overswe the Highland population.

NAIRN.—Nairn consists of two detached portions. Cap. Nairn.—Ar. 215 sq. miles; pop. 10,213.

Surf. is undulating on the coast, the interior is varied and hilly. Clim.—healthy. Rainfall—26 in. Mins.—granite and old red sandatone. Occ.—agric., with sheep and cattle rearing. Pars.—5. The county joins Eigin in returning one Mem. to Parl.

Nairn, 4, a small seaport.

Cel. Sites.—1. At Caudor Cas. in the vil. of Cawdor, 4 m. from Nairn, Duncan is said to have been murdered by Macbeth. 2. At Auldearn, 3 m. from Nairn, Montrose gained a vict. over the Covenanters in 1645.

7. ELGIN OF MORATSHIRE consists of two detached portions. Cap. Elgin.—Ar. 531 sq. miles; pop. 43,598.

Surf. is level on the North; the interior is undulating and hilly. The banks of the Spey and Findhorn are very romantic. Clim. is fine. Rainfall, 24 in. Mrss.—old red sandstone, granite, slate, and limestone. Occ.—agric, with some fishing.—Pars.—15, and portions of 5 others. The county joins with Nairn in sending one Mem. to Part. The Bors. Elgin, Forres, Banfi, &c., unite in sending one Mem.

Elgin, 7, finely sit., a cel. cathed., manf. of woollens, with foundries, &c.
 Porchast, 1; nr. is Gordon Cas., seat of Dk. of Richmond.

Col. Site.—On a waste nr. Forres, Shakspeare represents Macbeth and Banquo to have met the weird sisters.

8. Banff. cap. Banff.—Ar. 686 sq. miles; pop. 62,010.

Surf.—in the N. is undulating or hilly, in the S. mountainous. Mts.—Cairngorm, Ben Mac Dhul, Ben Avon. Clim.—is cold and damp. Mins.—granite, marble, clay-slate, &c. Occ.—agric. and herring fishing on the N., cattle and sheep rearing in the S. Pars.—20, with portions of others. Mems. to Pars.—Co. 1; Banff and Cullen unite to send 1 mem.

*Banf, 7; nr. is Macduff, 1. Keith, 2, an anc. tn. Cullen, 2; Buckie, 2, seaports.

Oel. Site.—Glow Livet is fam. for the distillation of whiskey.

9. ABREDEEN, cap. Aberdeen. — Ar. 1,970 sq. miles; pop. 244.607.

Surf. is much varied; the North East is hilly; the South West is mountainous. Mts.—Lochnagar, 3,800 ft.; Ben Mac Dhui, 4,406 ft.; Ben Avon, 3,968 ft. Rivers—Dee, Don, Ythan. Clim.—variable, but healthy. Mins.—gray granite, clay-slate, flagstone, and limestone. Occ.—manf. of cotton, linen, and woollens; shipbuilding, stone-quarrying, cattle and sheep rearing, dairies, and salmon fishing. Pars.—81. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bor. of Aberdeen 1; the universities of Aberdeen and Glasgow unite in sending 1. Aberdeenshire includes the former territorial divisions of Braemar, Buchan, Garioch, Formartin, Mar, and Strathborie. Strathboaie.

*Aberdeen, 88, is formed by the union of two towns-Old Aberdeen or Aberdon on the Don, and New Aberdeen on the Dee. Aberdeen is a large scaport, with manfs, of cottons, linens, woollens, paper, leather, machinery, shipbuilding, &c.; is the seat of a Univers. consisting of 2 cola, King's Col. in

Old Aberdeen, and Marischal Col. in New Aberdeen. Fraserburgh, 3, seaport, Practical, 8, scaport.
Peterhead, 8, scaport.
Ballater, mineral springs.
Balmoral Cas., 7 m. from Ballater and
48 m. W. of Aberdeen, is the Highland
resid. of Queen Victoria.

Cel. Sites.—1. At Harless, nr. Inverary, in 1411, Macdonald, Lord of the Isles, was definy James 1st, King of the Scots. 2. At Alford, Montrose def. the Covenanters, July 3, 1645. 3. At Barry Hill, nr. Inverary, Robert Brace def. the English under the Earl of Buchan in 1307.

LESSON 56 .- 120. 9 Central Counties.

10. Kincardinshire of Mearns, cap. Stonehaven.—Ar. 394 sq. miles; pop. 34,651.

Surf. is mountainous in the cent., North, and West; on the East is the How or Hollow of the Mearns. Strathmore commences at Stonehaven. Clim.—salubrious. Mins.—granite, clay-slate, limestone, and porcelain clay. Occ.—cattle and sheep rearing, agric., and fisheries. Pars.—18. Mems. to Parl.— Co. 1.

Stonehaven, 3, seaport.

Laurencekirk, 2, bpl. of Dr. Beattie.

11. FORFAR or Angus, cap. Forfar.—Ar. 889 sq. miles; pop. 237,528.

Surf.—On the N.W. are the Bracs of Angus, a rugged district; on the E. of this is the vale of Strathmore; on the S. the Sidlaw Hills; and next the plain on the coast. Mt.—Glashmeal, 3,501 ft. Clim. is cold and moist on the high on the coss. M.—Craminest, 0,001 it. Com. is cont and most on the light grounds. Mins.—granite, old red sandstone, clay-slate, limestone, and jasper. Occ.—manf. of linens, salicloths, &c., agric., past., and fisheries. Pars.—49. Mems to Parl.—Co. 1, Bors. 4.

*Forfar, 11, manf. of linens. Arbroath, 19, scaport. Brechin, 7, with an old cathed. *Dundee, 118, scaport, manf. of coarse

linens, carpets, &c. Coupar-Angus, 2. *Montrose, 14, seaport, flax mills, bleach-ing, &c.; bpl. of Marq. of Montrose.

Col. Sites.—1. Glammis Cas., 54 m. from Forfar, is the reputed scene of the murder of salcolm 2nd in 1034; it is now the seat of the Earl of Strathmore. 2. The Bell Rock Lighthouse is 13 m. from Arboath.

12. FIFE, cap. Cupar-Fife.—Ar. 513 sq. miles; pop. 160,310.

Surf. is much diversified; on the R. is the plain called the 'How of Fife;' on the W. are East Lomond, 1,471 ft., West Lomond, 1,713 ft., Largo Law, 948 ft. Clim.—dry and healthy. Mins.—coal, limestone, ironstone, freestone, and lead. Occ.—manf. of linen, coal mining, stone quarrying, agric., and shipping.

Pars.—63. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 1, Bors. 2. St. Andrew's Univers. and Edin.

Univers. join in sending 1 mem. Cupar-Fife unites with St. Andrew's, &c. in sending 1 mem.

**Cupar-Fife, 5, linens, breweries.

Burntisland, 3.

Dunfermline, 14, damasks, diapers, &c.;

bpl. of Charles 1st; tomb of Robert

Dysart, 8, coarse linens, &c.

Leven, 2. *Kirkaldy, 12, seaport.

St. Audrews, 6, seat of the oldest Universe in Scotland, founded in 1411.

- 13. Kinbuss, cap. Kinross.—Ar. 78 sq. miles: pop. 7.208.
- Pars. 4. Kinross unites with Clackmannan in sending 1 mem. to Parl. Kinross, 2, manf, of cuttons, tartans, &c.

Cel. Site.—In the castle in Loch Leven, Mary Queen of Scots was confined in 1567-8.

14. CLACKMANNAN, cap. Clackmannan,—Ar. 46 sq. miles; pop. 23.742.

Mins .- coal, iron, limestone, and lead. Occ .- manf. of blankets, serges, &c., coal mining, iron works. Pars. 4. The co. unites with Kinross in sending 1 mem. to Parl.

Clackmannan. 1. Alloa, 6, seaport, iron works, &c. Dollar, I, with an acad, founded in 1819 by Capt, Mac Nab.

15. Perth is chiefly a Highland county, consisting of one large portion and two small ones. Cap. Perth.—Ar. 2,834 sq. miles; pop. 127,741.

Surf. is much diversified. The vale of Strathmore intersects the county diagonally. On the West of this is the Grampian region, penetrated by numerous giens. Mts.—Ben.y-gloe, Ben Dearg, Ben Lawers, Ben More. Clens—Glen Lyon, Glen Rannoch, Glen Garry, &c. The Trosachs, so celebrated, lie between Lochs Achray and Katrine. The Lowland District lies S. E. of Strathmore, and includes portions of the Ochill and Sidlaw Hills, with the straths of more, and includes portions of the Uchill and Sidlaw Hills, with the straths of Earn and Tay, and the Carse of Gowerie. Clim. is cold on the high grounds, but milder on the Lowlands. Mins.—granite, clay, clay-slate, red sandstone, limestone, freestone, and some coal. Occ.—past. in the high grounds, agric. in the lowlands, with manf. of linen, cotton, and woollens, and stone quarrying. Pars.—79. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 1, Bor. 1.

This county includes the old districts of Athol, Breadalbane, Balquhidder, Gowrie, Perth, Menteith, Bannoch, Strathearn, and Stormont.

Perth, 25, seaport, fine town, manf, of linen and cotton, with tanneries, iron works; till 1437 it was considered the Cap. of Scotland. Abernethy, I, the anc. cap. of the Pictish

Kings. Biair Gowrie, 3. Crieff, 4, manf, of cotton and flax goods. Dunblane, 1, once a bishop's see.

Cel. Sites.—1. Blair Athol Cas., 35 m. N. of Perth, is the resid. of Dk. of Athol. 2. At Killicrankie, a narrow glen, 14 m. from Dunkeld, the Highland clans under Grahame, Viscount Dundee, def. the troops of William 3rd under Gen. Mackay in 1689, July 36. S. Scone, 1 m. from Perth, once had a pal. and an abbey, in which the Scotch kings were crowned; the stone on which the kings sat was removed by Edw. 1st to Westminster Abbey. 4. At Dunstane Hill, 1,114 ft., one of the Sidus Hills, 8 m. from Perth, Macbeth had his cas. where he was def. by Malcolm in 1634. S. At Sheriff Muir, nr. Dunblane, the Royalists under Dk. of Argyle encountered the Scotch rebels under the Earl of Mar, in Nov. 1715. Both sides claimed the victory.

16. Argule comprises a large extent of mainland, the peninsula of Cantire, and the adjacent islands of Mull, Islay, Jura, Tiree, Coll, Iona, &c. Cap. Inverary.—Ar. of the mainland 2,192 sq. miles; of the Islands 1,063 sq. miles. Total 3,255 sq. miles; pop. 75,635.

Surf .- the coasts are much indented; the interior is mostly rugged moorland and mountain. Clim.—very moist; annual Rainfall in some parts is 80 in.

Mins.—Slate, granite, marble, lead. Occ.—cattle and sheep rearing, dairies, some agric., and fisheries. Pars .- 36. Mem. to Parl .- Co. 1.

Inversity, 1, a seaport; nr. is Inversity | Dunoon, 3, a bathing place.

Cas., the res. of Dk. of Argyle. | Oban, 2, a seaport. Campbeltown, 6, seaport.

Col. Site.—Glencoe, a romantic valley nr. Loch Etive, is the scene of the atrucious massacre of the Macdonalds in Feb. 1691.

17. Dumbarton consists of two portions, the larger lying on the West, the smaller on the East, separated by the county of Stirling. Cap. Dumbarton; total ar. 320 sq. miles; pop. 58,839.

Surf .- much diversified. Clim. is mild but humid. Mins .- iron, coal, limestone, clay-slate, &c. Occ.—manf. of cottons, glass, paper, with pasturage. Pars.—12. Mem. to Parl.—Co. 1.

Dumbarton, 11, the former cap. of Strathclyde, has ship building, foundries, &c.; its cas., of great antic,, is on a rock 206 ft. above the Clyde.

Helensburgh, 4, a bathing place.

18. Stirling consists of one large portion and two small detached ones. Cap. Stirling.—Ar. 462 sq. miles; pop. 98,179.

Surf.—mountainous on the West, including Ben Lomond, 3,192 ft.; the middle part includes the Campsie Hills, with several moors and bogs; the East is generally level. Clim. is bleak on the West, more genial on the East.

Mins.—coal, iron, freestone, and limestone. Occ.—manf. of carpets, tartans, cottons, paper, with foundries, coal mines: past on the moorlands, and agric, on the lowlands. Pars.—25. Mens. to Part.—Co. 1, Bor. of Stirling unites with Dunfermiline, &c., in sending I mem.; Patirie with Lanark in sending I mem.

of cottons, woollens.
*Falkirk, 9, cattle markets.
Bannockburn, 2, woollens, tartans, &c.

*Stirling, 14, with a fine cas., once the res.
of the Kings of Scotland, with manf.
of cottons, woollens.

Kilsyth, 4, cottons.
Carron, 1, large iron works.
Bridge of Allan, 2, fam. for mineral springs. Denny, 2, manf. paper.

Oct. Sites.—At Bannockburn, Robert Bruce def. the English in 1314. 2. At Falkirk, Rdw. 1st def. the Scots in 1398; and here the Highlanders under Prince Charles Edw. def. the Royalists in 1745. 3. At Kilsyth, Montrose def. the Covenanters in 1645. 4. Stirking Cas. has been the scene of many historical events.

LESSON 57.—121. 14 Southern Counties.

19. Linlithgow or West Lothian, cap. Linlithgow.—Ar. 127 sq. miles; pop. 41,191.

Surf. is pleasingly diversified. Clim.—cold but healthy. Mins.—coal, lime-stone, freestone, grantic. Occ.—agric., cotton manf., coal mining, and stone quarrying. Pars.—18. Mems. to Pari.—Co. 1, Bor. of Linlithgow units with Falkirk in sending 1 mem.

*Linlithgow, 3, with an anc. royal pal. Bathgate, 4.

Borrowstoneness, 3, seaport.

20. Edinburghshire of Mid Lothian, cap. Edinburgh.—Ar. 367 sq. miles; pop. 328,335.

Surf.—diversified. Mis.—Muirfoot Hills, 2,000 ft.; Pentland Hills, 1,800 ft. Chim. is salubrious. Mins.—coal, limestone, sandstone, greenstone. Occ.—agric. and past.; manf. of fiax, silk, and woollen goods, and paper, with some fisheries. Pars.—42. Mems. to Park.—Co. 1, Edinburgh city 2; the Univers. joins St. Andrew's in sending 1, Leith 1.

*Edinburgh, 196, cap. of Scotland, and seat of the supreme courts of law, and sear of the supreme courts of law, and resid of many eminent men, is ple-turesquely sit, on two ridges of hills, and divided into an old and a new town; many of the houses are high, of which each storey or fact forms a separate dwelling. It is the seat of a University and centre of several large printing establishments; its cas, is on a precipitous rock, 437 ft. In ht. Catton

Hill, ht. 855 ft., contains an Observatory and many monuments. About 1 m, dist, is Arthur's Seat, ht. 822 ft.; in the valley bet, it and Calton Hill is the royal pal. called Holyrood House.

Licht, 4, a seaport; nr. are Newhaven and Granton, fishing vils.

Musselburgh, 7; Porto-Bello, 4, both on

the coast. Dalkeith, 5, with a pal, of the Dk, of Buccleuch.

- Cel. Sites.—1. Edinburgh has been the scene of many historic events. 2. At Pinkie, nr. Musselburgh, the Eng. under the Earl of Hertford def. the Scots, Sept. 10, 1547.
- 21. HADDINGTON OF EAST LOTHIAN, cap. Haddington.—Ar. 280 sq. miles; pop. 37,770.

Surf.—much diversified; in the S. are Lammermoor Hills, 1,700 ft. Clim.—variable. Mins.—red sandstone, coal, and limestone. Occ.—agric., past., and fisheries. Pars.—28. Mems. to Part.—Co. 1, Bor. 1.

*Haddington, 4, wool and corn mark., bpl. | Dunbar, 3, a seaport, herring fishery.
 of John Knox. | North Berwick, 1. Preston Pans, 1.

Col. Sizes.—1. At Dunbar, Edw. 1st, in 1296, def. the Scots under Ballol: and here also, Cromwell def. the Scots, Sept. 3, 1850. 2. At Preson Pans, the Highlanders under Charles Edw. Stuart def. the Royalists under Sir John Cope in 1746. 3. Tantallow Cas., the anc. and cel, resid, of the Douglases, is on the coast nr. N. Berwick.

22. Berwick, cap. Greenlaw.—Ar. 473 sq. miles; pop. 36,474.

Surf.—Level on the S. including 'the Merse,' or borderland, and Lauderdale; on the N.W. are the Lammermoor Hills. Clim. is dry, but cold and subject to sudden changes. Mins.—limestone, marl, slate, with some coal. Occ.—agric., with cattle rearing. Pars.—31. Mem. to Parl.—Co. 1.

Greenlaw, 1.

Dunse, 2,

Coldstream, 1.

23. ROXBURGH, cap. Jedburgh.—Ar. 670 sq. miles; pop. 53,965.

Surf .- diversified; on the S. are the Cheviot Hills; cf. hts., Carter Fell, Peel Fell, N. of these are Teviotdale and Tweedale; on the S. is Liddisdale. Clim. is mild. Mins.—red sandstone and limestone. Occ.—past. on the Cheviots, agric. on the plains, with manf. of woollens and hosiery. Pars.—30. Mem. to Parl.—Co. 1.

Hawick, 11, manf. of woollens, hosiery. Kelso, 4, corn trade. Meirose, 1, with ruins of a cel. abbey;

3 m. dist. is Abbotsford, formerly the resid. of Sir Walter Scott. Roxburgh, now a vil., was once the county

24. SELKIRK, cap. Selkirk.—Ar. 260 sq. miles; pop. 14,001.

tn.

Surf.—hilly, including the dales of Etirick and Farrow. Mt.—Ettrick Pen, 2,258 ft. Rivers—Tweed, Ettrick, and Yarrow. Clim.—cold but healthy. Mins.—clay-slate, granite. Occ.—past., with agric. and manf. of woollens. Mins.—clay-slate, granite. Occ.—past., with agric. and Pars.—3, with portions of 7 others. Mem. to Parl.—Co. 1.

Relkirk, 4. Galashiels, 9, manf. of tweeds.

At Philiphaugh, nr. Selkirk, Montrose was def. by the Covenanters under David Lesley in 1645.

25. Prebles of Tweedale, cap. Peebles.—Ar. 356 sq. miles; pop. 12,314,

Surf .- elevated and hilly, with moor and bog. Mts.-Hart Fell, 2,635 ft.; Broadlaw Hill, 2,741 ft. Clim. is cold. Mins.—grey wacke or whinstone, red sandstone, limestone, and some coal. Occ.—past. Pars.—16. Mem. to Pars.—0. 1.

Peebles, 2.

Inverleithen, 1, mineral springs.

26. DUMFRIES, cap. Dumfries.—Ar. 1,098 sq. miles; pop.

Surf.—mostly hilly, but flat on the Solway; the county includes Eskdale, Annandale, and Nithsdale; Mt.—Black Larg, 2,890 ft.; Lowther, 2,522 ft., and Queensberry, 2,259 ft. Clim. of the S.W. is mild but moist. Mins.—grey wacke, timestone, red sandstone, ironstone, with some coal. Occ.—agric., sheep and cattle rearing, and some manf. of woollens, &c. Pars.—43. Mems. to Parl.— Co. 1, the Bor. of Dumfries with Annan, &c., sends 1.

**Enumyriës, 15, considered a provincial the poet. cap, manf. of cottons and woollens, has Annan, 3, a sevport. an observatory, and the tomb of Burns [Moffat, 1, mineral waters.]

27. LANARESHIRE OF CLYDESDALE, cap. Lanark.—Ar. 889 sq. miles; pop. 765,279.

Surf. is much diversified; the Southern part is hilly with moorlands, in which are the Lowther Hills, of which cf. ht. is Green Hill, 2,403 ft.; Tintock, 2,308 ft., is a detached mass. The middle part is undulating, the Northern is level. The Falls or Cataracts of the Clyde, near Lanark, comprise Bonnington Linn, 30 ft. of fall; Corra Linn, 84 ft., and Stonebyres, 80 ft. Clim. is mild and contribution to be a contribution of the contribution moist in the lowlands. Mins. - coal, lead, iron, limestone, and building stones.

Occ.-chiefly manf., with coal, lead, and iron mining, shipbuilding, agric., and past. Pars.—exclusive of Glasgow, 55. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bors. 3; Universities of Glasgow and Aberdeen send 1.

*Lanark 5 Airdrie, 13, collieries, iron works.

Ruthergien, 9, muslins.

Glasgow, 477, the chief seaport and emporium of trade and commerce in Scot-

land, manf. of cottons, woollens, silks, machinery, steam engines, &c., has

178 churches and chapels, many splendid edifices, a cathed., a well-endowed Univers. and another called the Auonivers, and another called the Audersonian University.

Hamilton, 11, lace, check-shirts, &c., with a ducal pal.

Cel. Sites. -1. At Bothwell Bridge, on the Clyde, 2 m. from Hamilton, the Covenanters were def. by the royal forces under Dk of Monmouth, June 22, 1679. 2. At Drumclog, 5 m. from Strathavon, the dragoons of Claverhouse were def. by the Covenanters in June 1679.

28. Renfrew, cap. Renfrew.—Ar. 247 sq. miles; pop. 216,919.

Surf.-level, except on the West, which is hilly with moorlands. Clim. moist. Mins.-coal, iron, limestone, and freestone in abundance. Occ.-manf. of cottons, &c., with coal mining, iron works, past., and dairy farming. Pars. -30. Mems. to Parl. -Co. 1, Bors. 2.

Renfrew. 4, silks, muslins, &c.
Joinstone, 6, cottons, with iron foun-57, large seaport, ship

Port Glasgow, 10, seaport. *Paisley, 4, cottons, silks, fancy goods,

&c. Pollockshaws, 7, cottons.

Cel. Sites.—1. At Langside, nr. Pollockshaws, the troops of Mary Queen of Scots were def. by the Regent Murray in 1868. 2. In the town of Renfrew, the Stewart family, so called from their office of Stewards of Scotland, had their earliest known natrimonial inheritance about the 12th century.

29. Buteshire consists of the islands of Bute and Arran, with Great and Little Cumbray, Inchmarnock, Holy Island, and Pladda. -Ar. of the whole 171 sq. miles; pop. 16,977. Cap. Rothesay 7, a celebrated bathing-place.

a. The Island of Bute is separated from the mainland by a channel called the 'Kyles of Bute;' area, about 60 sq. m.; pop. 3,306; cap. Rothessy, 7. The Surf. on the N. is mountainous, on the S. undulating. Clim.—mild and moist. Mins.—limestone, slate, with some coal. Oc.—agric. and herring fishers. b. Isle of Arran is separated from the peninsula of Cantire by Kilbrennan Sound, and from Bute by the Sound of Bute; area, about 111 sq. m.; pop. 5,538, Surf. on the N. is mountainous, on the S. undulating. Mt.—Goatfell, 2,874 ft. Mins.—coals, freestone, limestone, and inonstone. Occ.—agric. and fishing. Arran has no town. Buteshire has 6 pars.—3 in Bute, 2 in Arran, and 1 in the Cumbrays. The Co. sends 1 Mem. to Parl.

30. AYESHIRE, cap. Ayr.—Ar. 1,149 sq. miles; pop. 200,745.

Ayrshire consists of 3 Districts—Cunningham in the N., Kyle in the centre, and Carrick in the S. Alisa Craig, a rock off the coast, 1,098 ft. belongs to Ayrshire. The Surf. of Ayrshire is varied; there are several fine plains on the coast; the East and South East are mountainous. Clim. is moist but healthy; ann. Rainfall is 50 in. Mins.—coal, ironstone, lead, plumbago, antimony, copper, limestone, &c. Occ.—agric, and cattle rearing, coal mining, and mant. of cottons and woollens. Pars. 46. Mems. to Parl. Co. 2, Bors. 2.

*Ayr, 17, seaport, fishery, export of coals, &c.; 2 m. dist. is bpl. of Burns the poet. *Kilmarnock, 22, carpets, leather, cot-

tons, wooliens.
Ardrossan, 2, seaport,
Dairy, 4, coal and fron works.
Girvan, 6, seaport.

Irvine, 6, seaport, exp. of coals, Saltcoats, 4, seaport, Largs, 2, seaport. Maybole, 4, with a cas Stewarton, 3, carpets, &c. Troon, 2, seaport. Kilwinning, 4, muslins; nr. are coal pits.

31. Kirkcudbright, cap. Kirkcudbright,—Ar. 954 sq. miles; pop. 41,852.

Surf. is hilly on the N. and W. Mt.—Black Larg, 2,890 ft. Clim.—mild, but moist on the low grounds. Mins.—granite, limestone, &c. Occ.—agric. and past. Purs.—28. Mem. to Purl.—Co. 1.

Kirkcudbright, 2, seaport.

32. Wigton, cap. Wigton.—Ar. 512 sq. miles; pop. 38,795.

Wigton consists of two peninsulas and the mainland. Surf. is undulating, rising towards the N. from 500 to 1,000 ft.; there is much moorland. Clim. is mild and moist. Rainfall at Strannar 55 in. Mins.—sandstone and slate. Occ.—agric. and past. Pars.—17. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 1, Bor. 1.

*Wigton, 1, seaport.
Portpatrick, 1, nearest port to Ireland.

Stranraer, 5, seaport. Whithorn, 1, once a bishop's see.

LESSON 58 .- HISTORY.

- 1.22.c. ROMAN PERIOD.—In the early Roman Period, the Northern Part of Sectland, from Pentland Frith to the Frith of Forth, was called Caledonia (from the Caledonii, a leading tribe), and sometimes, Britannia Barbdra. It was then occupied by various Celtic and Scandinavian or Gothic tribes. South of the Frith of Forth, was called Valentia, and generally formed part of Roman Britain.
- b. Scots and Picts.—About 360 a.D. the Scott or scanderers, a Celtic tribe (originally it is supposed from South Britain), emigrated from the North and East parts of Ireland (where they had previously settled), and effected a settlement in Argyleshire, to which they gave the name of Dalriada. Here they remained for more than 300 years. During this period, the rest of the country, both Central and Eastern, lying North of the Friths of Forth and Clyde, formed the kingdom of the northern and southern Picts, who were of Scandinavian or Gothic origin, spoke a different language from the Scotti, and were generally under the dominion of one king.
- c. From A.D. 736 to 1034. Angus Mac Feryus, king of the Picts, conquered Dalriada, over which his descendants reigned till 819, when the Dalriadic family recovered their ancestral dominions. In 843, the whole of Caledonia was governed by Kenneth Mac Alpin, originally king of the Scots of Dalriads, but thenceforth styled King of the Picts. During the 10th century, the country was ruled as one kingdom by the successors of Kenneth Mac Alpin, and known by the name of Albania or Albin. About the middle of the century, however, the name Scotland began to be applied instead of Caledonia or Albania, and from the commencement of the 11th century, the people were styled Scots simply. During the above period, the portion South of the Forth and Clyde, once forming the ROMAN VALENTIA, consisted of three districts:—1. The Eastern part, called BERNICIA, which formed part of the Auglo-Saxon Kingdom of Northumbria. 2. STRATHCLYDE, which comprised modern Dumbarton, Lanark, Renfrew, and North Ayr. This was a Cymric or Welsh kingdom, sometimes independent of, at other times united with Cumbria. It was conquered by Kenneth 3rd, in 978. 3. Galloway, a Pictish kingdom, which comprised the modern counties of Kirkcudbright, Wigton, and South Ayr.
- d. Lords of the Mestern Isles, which they retained till 1266, when they sold the sovereignty to the King of the Scots. This transfer, however, was resisted by Macdonald, the Celtic chief of the islands, who thenceforward assumed the dignity of 'Lord of the Isles.' One of these sovereign Lords or Kings having been refused an Earldom in the North of Scotland, which he had claimed, declared war against James the king of the Lowland Scotch, in which he was assisted by the Highlanders, most of whom were at that time nearly independent. The decisive battle was fought at Harlaw in Aberdeenshire, in 1411, when Macdonald was signally defeated and his power broken. The last Lord of the Isles was attainted for rebellion in 1438, and lost his life. The Orkney and Shetland Isles were annexed to the Scottish crown in 1488.
- e. Modern Scotland.—1034 to 1603.—About 1034, Duncan became King of Scotland, but from some cause, was attacked and slain near Elgin in 1040, by his kinsman Matcht, rendered so famous by Shakspeare. Macchet then usurped the throne, and reigned from 1040 to 1057, when Malcolm Canmore (or Great Head), the son of the slain Duncan, assisted by Saxon troops from England, made war upon him and slew him. Malcolm in 1063 married Margaret, eldest sister of Edgar Atheling of England. Afterwards, many changes occurred in the succession. In 1261, Alexander 3rd married Margaret eldest daughter of Henry 3rd of England. In 1281, Eric. king of Norway, married Alexander's daughter, who died in 1283, leaving only an unfant daughter, 'the Maiden of Norway,' who, in the following year, by the

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death of her grandfather's children, became the direct heir to the Scottish throne. In 1290, in consequence of the death of this child, Margaret, daughter of Eric and grand daughter of Alexander, a disputed succession took place, when Edward 1st, of England, who had been appointed umpire, decided in avour of John Baleiol, exacting from him, however, homage as Lord Paramount. Shortly after, Baliol having broken his pledge, Edward invaded Scotland in 1296. On the death of Baliol, Robert Bruce, grandson of a former competitor, assumed the title of king and was crowned at Scone, March 1306. On the death of Edward 1st in 1307, his son Edward 2nd prosecuted the war, but was defeated by the Scots at Bannockburn, June 1314, which led to the Independence of Scotland in 1329. Robert Bruce was succeeded by his son David 2nd, a mere child, who reigned till 1370. David Bruce died in 1370, leaving an only daughter, Margaret. who had previously married Walter, the Lord High Steward of Scotland. Their son was chosen king, as Robert 2nd, thus founding the royal line of Stewart, 1370. The following is the order of succession of the STEWART DYNASTY:—Robert 2nd, 1370; Robert 3rd, 1390; James 1st, 1466; James 2nd, 1437; James 3rd, 1460; James 4th, 1488, James 5th, 1513; Mary, 1642; James 6th, 1567, who ascended the throne of England as James 1st, Mary 1642; James 6th, 1567, who ascended the throne of England as James 1st, Mary 1640; chiefly through the instrumentality of John Knox. This has proved in Scotland, as in other countries, the greatest of National Blessings.

IRELAND.

- LESSON 59.—PHYSICAL.—123a. IRELAND is bounded on the North, West, and South by the Atlantic Ocean; on the East by the North Channel, Irish Sea, and St. George's Channel. The greatest length is 290 miles, the mean length about 220 miles. The greatest breadth is 175 miles, mean breadth 140 miles. The ar. including the islands is 32,513 sq. miles; pop. in 1871 was 5,402,759. Cap. Dublin.
- b. The Coast is much indented on the North, the West, and the South West; the shorts on these sides are generally high and rocky, and the cliffs in many places precipitous. The Eastern Coast is generally low, and the shore frequently obstructed with sunken rocks and sandbanks, particularly the shores of Down and Antrim. The entire length of the coast line is about 2,000 miles.
- 124a. Principal Inlets or Estuaries.—On the North, Loughs Foyle and Swilly. On the East, Belfast Lough, Strangford Lough, Dundrum Bay, Carlingford Lough, Dundalk and Dublin Bays, and Wexford Haven. On the South, Waterford, Cork, and Kinsale Harbours. On the West, Bantry, Kenmare, and Dingle Bays, Mouth of the Shannon, and the Bays of Galway, Clew, Killala, Sligo, and Donegal.
- b. Capes.—On the North, Fair Head, Bengore, Malin Head, Horn Head. On the East, Howth Head and Wicklow Head. On the South, Carnsore Point, Cape Clear, and Mizen Head. On the West, Dunmore Head, Kerry Head, Loop Head, Slyne Head, Achil Head, Erris Head, and Rossan Point.
- 125a. Islands.—The Islands, which are all adjacent to the coast are numerous but small.
- b. On the North are Rathlin, Inistrahull, Inch, in Lough Swilly, and Tory N. of Donegal. On the West are—North Isle of Arran, on the West of Donegal; Achil Isle (ar. 55 sq. m.), Eagle, Clare, and others on the W. of Mayo; the three South Isles of Arran in Galway Bay; the Blaskets and Valentia Island. (ar. 12 sq. m.) West of Kerry. On the South are Dursey Isle and Cape Clear Island.

126a.—Surface. The surface of the interior of Ireland is mostly level, being occupied by a great Central Plain which stretches from Dublin Bay on the East to Galway Bay on the West, and from Lough Neāgh on the North to the borders of Waterford on the South. The highest part of this plain does not exceed 320 ft. above sea level. The mountainous or hilly districts of the country are the North West, the West, and the South West, and the county of Wicklow.

b. Mountains.—The mountains of Ireland do not form continuous chains, but lie in detached groups, many of which are cultivable to the very top. The following are the principal groups:—1. The mountains of Antrim; chief heights, Trostan near Cushendall, 1,810 ft.; Divis near Belfast, 1,559 ft. 2. Mountains of Donegal; chief height, Errigal, 2,462 ft. 3. Mountains of Mayo, of which the chief are Nephin Beg mountains, 2,639 ft., Croagh Patrick, 2,510 ft. 4. Mountains of Connemāra in Galway; chief heights, Mulrea, 2,632 ft.; Twelve Pins, 2,396 ft. 5. Mountains of Kerry; chief heights, Mac Gillycuddy's Reeks, 3,404 ft.; mount Brandon, N. of Dingle Bay, 3,120 ft. 6. Mountains of Wicklow, chief height, Lugnaquilla, 3,039 ft., 7. Mourne mountains in Down, chief height, Liugnaquilla, 2,796 ft. Besides the above, there are Sieve Bloom mountains, 1,691 ft., on the borders of King's County and Queen's County; Silver Mine mountains, 2,265 ft., N. W. of Tipperary; and Galty mountains, 3,005 ft., and Knockmeiledown mountains, 2,698 ft. S. of Tipperary.

c. The Bogs.—A striking feature in the Surface of Ireland is the quantity of Bog-land, which is estimated to occupy above 12,000 sq. miles. The Bogs of Ireland differ materially from the Fens of England. The Bogs are all on elevated ground, and can thus be easily drained; while the Fens of England, being level or nearly so, are drained with difficulty. The bogs are composed of vegetable matter called peat, which serves for fuel. The largest is the Bog of Allen, which extends through Kildare, King's County, Meath, and Roscommon. A great portion of the Central Plain consists of red Bog-land. Bogs also occur in the hilly districts of Silgo, Mayo, Galway, Wicklow, and other parts.

- d. Chief Rivers.—1. In the North, Foyle 80 miles, Bann 90 miles, and the Blackwater of Tyrone 50 miles. 2. On the East, Lagan 42 miles, Boyne 80 miles, Liffey 70 miles, Slaney 55 miles. 3. On the South, Barrow 100 miles, Suir 100 miles, the Blackwater of Cork 90 miles, Lee 50 miles, Bandon 40 miles. 4. On the West, the Shannon 224 miles, the largest river in Ireland; Moy in Mayo 40 miles, Erne in Fermanagh 80 miles. Most of the Irish rivers abound with selmon.
- e. Lakes or Loughs.—Lough Neāgh, S. of Antrim, ar. 153 sq. miles, the largest in the British Islands; its shores are low, and its waters noted for their petrifying quality. Lough Erne consists of two lakes, an upper and a lower one; the total ar. is 57 sq. miles. Loughs Allen, Ree, and Derg, are formed by the Shannon. A smaller Lough Derg lies in Donegal. Loughs Conn and Mask are in Mayo; Corrib (ar. 67 sq. miles) in Galway; and the lakes of Killarney in Kerry, consisting of an upper, middle, and lower lake, are noted for their romantic scenery.
- 127a. The Climate of Ireland is mild, and much more moist than that of England; but, in several respects, it is more agreeable, as the summers are not so hot nor the winters so severe.

- b. As the Westerly Winds, charged with the vapours of the Atlantic, prevail for about 9 months in the year, the average number of rainy days in the year is considerable, amounting to about 208. The rains, however, are seldom heavy. The annual rainfall on the East coast is 29 inches, on the West 47 inches. The constant moisture of the air gives to the country the appearance of freshness and verdure; and hence the poetic name of the Emerald or Green isle. Several plants, which require artificial heat in England, flourish here in the open air; but, on the other hand, peaches, grapes, and most of the southern fruits do not ripen without much care.
- 128.—Soil, &c. a. The Soil of Ireland, with the exception of the bogs, is generally loam, resting on a substratum of limestone, which, though often shallow, is almost everywhere fertile. The country is in most parts deficient in trees, though formerly there were numerous forests.
- b. Minerals—are limestone, which is abundant nearly everywhere; granite, which prevails particularly in the Wicklow and Galway ranges; an inferior kind of cool, generally only a few inches in thickness, is found in Kilkenny and several other places; and peat, exclusively used by the poor for fuel, occupies above 2,800,000 acres. The other minerals are black marble, iron-ore, copper, lead, zinc, manganese, antimony, alum, roofing slate, clays, building stones, and rock-salt.
- c. The Wild animals do not materially differ from those of England. Though toads are said to exist in the S. West, and frogs to frequent the pools, yet moles, serpents, and venomous animals are unknown, the moist climate being destructive to them.

LESSON 60.—POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—129. Ireland is divided into four provinces: 1. *Ulster*; 2. *Leinst.r*; 3. *Munster*; 4. *Connaught*: and these are subdivided into 32 counties.

North.-1. Ulster contains 9 Counties: namely.

North.—1. Utster contain	ns y Counties; namely,
Counties. County Towns. 1. Antrim . Belfast 2. Londonderry . Londonderry 3. Donegal . Donegal 4. Tyrone . Omagh 5. Fermanagh . Enniskillen	
East 2. Leinster contain	ns 12 Counties ; namely,
10. Louth Dundalk 11. Meath Trim 12. West Meath Mullingar 13. Longford Longford 14. King's County . Tullamore 15. Queen's County . Maryborough	19. Wexford Wexford 20. Carlow Carlow
South 3. Munster con	tains 6 Counties ; namely,
22. Tipperary Clonmel 23. Waterford Waterford 24. Cork Cork	25. Kerry Tralee 26. Limerick Limerick 27. Clare Ennis
West4. Connaught conf	tains 5 Counties; namely,
28. Galway Galway 29. Mayo Castlebar 30. Sligo Sligo	31. Leitrim { Carrick on- Shannon 32. Roscommon Roscommon

The East part of the country, from its comparatively greater dryness than the West, is chiefly occupied with agriculture; while the middle, western, and southern districts are occupied chiefly in pasture.

- As a grazing country, indeed, Ireland is probably superior to any other in Europe. Of domestic animals, the most important are cattle, pigs, and poultry.
- b. The chief agricultural Products are oats, wheat, barley, potatoes, turnips, flax, and mangold wurzel. Though the mode of farming has considerably improved within the last 30 years, yet the subdivision of the land into small paticles forms a great retardment to real and settled prosperity. Pasture farms are either granung or dairy. In the former, large numbers of oxen and sheap are reared, which, with numerous pigs, are principally exported to England. The dairy farms produce butter, which is also largely exported. Numerous goats are reared in the mountainous regions. Probably above three-fourths of the people depend on the produce of the soil.
- c. Manufactures, &c.—Ireland is not a manufacturing country. The staple manufacture is that of linen, of which the annual value is about 7,000,000l. The principal towns occupied in this business are Belfast, Newry, Drogheda, and Dublin. Cotton goods are manufactured at Belfast, Kildare, Tullamore, &c.; poplins, a mixed fabric of silk and wool, at Dublin and Bandon; lace at Belfast, Cork, &c.; woollen goods at Kilkenny, and Roscommon, and by the cottier farmers in different parts; gloves in Limerick, &c.; paper in Galway, &c.; glass in Dublin, Cork, &c.; whisky and porter in Dublin and other places.
- d. Commerce.—The Imports comprise tea, coffee, tobacco, sugar, wine, timber, tallow, flax, hemp, Indian-corn, and coal, which last is largely imported mesotiand and England, with cotton, woollen, and hardware goods. The Exports, which are chiefly to Great Britain, consist principally of agricultural produce—cattle, pigs, sait-beef and pork, bacon, butter, oats, wheat, barley, flour, oatmeal, and eggs, with linen, copper-ore, &c.
- e. Chief Ports.—On the North, Londonderry. On the East, Belfast, Dundalk, Drogheda, Dublin, Wexford. On the South, Waterford, Cork. On the West, Limerick, Galway, Sligo.
- f. Internal Communications.—The Roads in Ireland are good, except in remote and mountainous districts. There are two principal Canals—The Grand Canal, 184 miles, connects Dublin with Ballinaslee, on the Shannon; The Royal Canal, 92 miles, connects Dublin with Longford. Of Railways, about 2,000 miles are now open for traffic. Electric Telegraph wires have been laid between the chief towns; and a Submarine Line connects Ireland with England.
- g. The Fisheries.—The coasts round Ireland abound with fish, of which the most plentiful kinds are herrings, pilchards, cod, ling, hake, and mackarel, Above 11,000 boats, manned by 50,000 fishermen, are employed in the Fisheries. There are cyster beds on the coast of Clare, and in Loughs Swilly and Carlingford. Fresh water fish abound in the rivers; and Salmon Fisheries are established on the Bann, the Foyle, and other rivers. All these natural advantages, however, are not properly developed by the Irish; even the salt fish consumed in the country is not cured by the natives, but imported from Scotland.
- h. Antiquities.—Ireland abounds with monuments of former ages. Of these may be mentioned:—I. The Druidical Circles of earth or stones, as in the Giant's Ring near Belfast. 2. Crombech, structures of large stones, supposed to have been Druidical Altars, situated near the coast. 3. Tumbli, which very frequently occur. 4. Ogham or Inscribed stones, probably intended for boundary marks. 5. Raths or fortified villages, with subterranean chambers, as on the Hill of Tara in Meath. 6. Round Touers, erected, it is supposed, in the 9th or 10th century to serve as belifies and places of defence.
- EESON 62.—Social Condition.—131a. Government.—Since the union of the two Kingdoms in 1800, a.d., the two islands have become one Realm, under the name of the United Kingdom of

Great Britain and Ireland, and enjoy the same government. The Laws also of Ireland differ very little from those of England.

- b. Since 1800 Ireland has been represented in the British House of Lords by 28 Temporal Peers elected for life, and, till the Session of 1868, by 4 Spiritual Peers; but by an Act then passed, the Irish Bishops were deprived of their seats. In the House of Commons Ireland was represented by 100 members from 1800 to the First Reform Act in 1832, when the number was raised to 105; and this has been confirmed by an Act passed in 1867. The Electoral Franchise rests with similar classes as those in England.
- c. The Local Government is vested in the Vicercy or Lord Lieutenant, assisted by a Chief Secretary and a Privy Council nominated by the crown. The Judicial power rests with the Lord Chancellor, the Master of the Rolls, and 12 Circuit Judges. Each county has a Lieutenant and a High Sheriff, assisted by several deputy-lieutenants and magistrates, and a police force appointed by the crown.
- In 1849 a Commission for the sale of *Bnownbered Estates* was appointed, by which large estates were transferred from bankrupt proprietors to the hands of competent and improving landlords. The amount of Sales effected by this means, from 1849 to 1850 was 28,190,8994, and the sum paid to Oreditors and Mortagagers was 24,229,027. It is the Encumbered Estates Court was superseded by the *Landed Estates Court*. The amount of Sales effected by this latter court from 1858 to 1862 was 5,940,990. The *Becenue, Army*, &c. are included under England.
- 132. Religion.—a. There is now (1872) no established church in Ireland. The three leading Religious Denominations are—the Protestant Episcopalian, the Presbyterian, and the Roman Catholic.
- b. 1. The Protestant Episcopalian Church, which, by an Act passed in 1869 ceased on Jan. 1, 1871, to be the established church, is governed by 2 Archbishops (Armagh, the Primate, and Dublin), and 10 Bishops, and is served by about 1,700 clergy. 2. The Presbyterian Church has 37 presbyteries, 598 ministers, and 560 congregations. The Ministers are partly supported by the Regium Donum or Royal Gift of £14,000 per annum. These two bodies form by far the most intelligent, industrious, and order-loving portion of the people. 3. The Roman Catholic Church is governed by 4 Archbishops (Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam), and 24 Bishops, and has upwards of 2,000 priests. The Roman Catholic priesthood are supported by their own congregations.
- c. Each of the Protestant Dioceses includes two or more of the old dioceses. The Province of Armagh includes the following dioceses:—1. Armagh, 2. Meath, 3. Derry, 4. Down, 5. Kilmore, 6. Tuam. The Province of Dublis includes the following:—1. Dublin, 2. Ossory, 3. Cashel, 4. Cork, 5. Kilaloe, 6. Limerick.
- d. By the Census of 1871, the Roman Catholics numbered 4,141,933; the Protestant Episcopalians, 683,295; the Presbyterians, 558,238; other Dissenting bodies, 19,035. Since 1829 Roman Catholics have become eligible to all public offices except that of Lord Lieutenant.
- 133. Education.—a. The present system of National Education for Ireland was established in 1833. It is managed by a board sitting in Dublin, and is maintained by large annual grants allowed by Parliament, in addition to the small fees required of the children. The Education given in the National Schools is strictly confined to the common and most useful branches of Secular Knowledge, the religious instruction of the pupils being in every case left to the care of their parents and the clergy of the denominations to which they belong.
- b. The National Schools, aided by parliamentary grants, amounted in 1868 to 5.586, and were attended by 967,500 pupils, of whom 479,000 were Roman Catholics, and the remainder Protestants. The Protestant Church Education Society, which is a voluntary association, has also many schools in which religious instruction, according to the principles of the Church of England, is statedly imparted. There are two Universities, namely Dublin, consisting of

Trinity College, founded in 1591, and connected with the Episcopal Church; and Queen's University, founded in 1850, which is independent of all religious creeds. It consists of three colleges, one situated at Belfast, a second at Cork, and a third at Galway. Besides these there are 1. Maynooth College, founded in 1795, and intended for the Roman Catholic priesthood. This receives an annual grant of £30,000 from parliament. 2. The Roman Catholic University in Dublin. 3. The Royal Belfast Academical Institution, founded in 1807, and intended for students of all ages, is connected with the University of London. Royal Schools also exist at Armagh, Enniskillen, and other towns; and several private, endowed, and public schools connected with different religious bodies are in various parts of the country. So far back as the reign of Henry 8th every clergyman was bound to institute a parochial school; but this judicious act was either most improperly neglected, or by some means frustrated.

- c. The Language spoken by the lower classes, especially in the central and Western parts, is the Erse, a dialect of the Celtic; but the English Language is becoming more and more prevalent among all classes.
- d. Literature.—Of the most eminent Irish authors, the following may be mentioned—for Wit, Swift and Sheridan; for Eloquence, Burke, Grattan, and Curran; for Poetry, Goldsmith, Moore, and Parnell; for Divinity, Usher, Magee, and Trench; for Speculative Philosophy, Berkeley; for Light Literature, Ba.im, Maria Edgeworth, and Charles J. Lever.
- **134.** Race, Customs, and Character.—a. The Irish are descendants of the great Celtic family, with a large admixture in the North and East of English and Lowland Scotch emigrants. The Gentry and Middle Classes differ little either in language, dress, manners, or customs from those of the same rank in England, but the lower classes differ in many respects.
- b. Customs.—Their Marriages frequently serve as opportunities for drunken revels. The practice of employing at Funerals hired howling women called Utulates is very prevalent. A fondness for loud mirth, telling long stories, and Amusements, are striking characteristics in an Irishman. Their Fairs are frequently the scenes of disturbance and bloodshed.
- c. The houses of the poor are mean cabins, built of clay and straw, with an opening through the roof for a chimney. In these miserable hovels, the man, his wife and children, his cowe, pigs, geese, and fowls are promiscuously lodged. The Food of the poor is principally the potato, with milk and meal in Ulster; with milk in the East and South; but alone in the West; yet, on this fare, the Irish are in general a robust race.
- d. The Irish Character presents much contrariety; many traits that are aniable, and others that are highly culpable. They are lively and witty, warm-hearted and hospitable, and even many in the lowest ranks are courteous and polite; in the vivacity of their disposition and the gaiety of their manners, they resemble the French more than the English or Scotch. Hardy, daring and heedless of danger, they may be ranked among the finest soldlers in the world. On the other hand, they are foolishly credulous, fond to excess of flattery (of which demagogues avail themselves), easily influenced by sudden impulses, and deficient in that steady industry, frugality, and sensible consideration before action which generally distinguish the English and Scotch. Their brutal love of fighting, and lawless murderous combinations are notorious and diagraceful.

LESSON 63.—Description of Counties, Towns, and celebrated Places.

135.—Ulster contains 9 Counties.

1. ANTRIM, cap. Belfast.—Ar. 1,190 sq. miles; pop. 235,936.

On the North Coast, are the Giant's Causeway and the Isle of Rathlin. Surf. The coast and the West are mountainous, the Centre is table land. Mts.—Trostan, 1,810 ft.; Divis, 1,559 ft. Lough Neagh occupies 153 sq. m. Mins.—

granite, chalk, with some coal. Occ.—manf. of linens, cottons, with agric. and fisheries. Pars.—75. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bors. 4.

Belfast, 174, linens, cottons, lace, iron | *Carrickfergus, 9, linens, cottons, foundries, seat of one of the Queen's Antrim, 2. Ballymena, 6. Colleges, 7, linen.

2. LONDONDERRY or Derry, cap. Londonderry.—Ar. 810 sq. miles; pop. 148,690.

Surf.—is mountainous in the South and Centre; elsewhere level. M.—White Mountain, 1,998 ft. Cliss.—mild. Mins.—granite, sandstone, chaik, limestone, slate. Occ.—manf. of linen, and agric. Pars.—31. Mems. to Parl. -Co, 2, Bors. 2,

**Londonderry, 25, a river port, manf. of | of James 2nd in 1889. | linen, &c., cel. for its heroic defence, under Rev. G. Walker, against the forces | **Coleraine, 5, scaport, paper mills, tan-meries, fisheries.

3. DONEGAL, cap. Lifford.—Ar. 1,865 sq. miles; pop. 217,992.

Surf.—mountainous with much bog and moorland, except on the East, which is level. Mus.—Earrigal, 2,462 ft.; Glendowan, 1,770 ft.; Sileve League, 1,996 ft. On the coast are numerous islands of which the chief are Tory and Aran. Numerous Lakes its within the glens of the mts. In Lough Derg is an island called St. Patrick's Purgatory, to which pilgrims resort. Mins.—mica-slate, granite, limestone, marble, porcelain-clay, copper, &c. Oc.—past. on the moorlands; agric and linen manf. on the plains; fisheries on the coast. Pars. -51. Mems. to Parl.-Co. 2, Bor. 1.

> Lifford, 4 Ballyshannon, 3. Donegu!, 1.

1. Tyrone, cap. Omagh.—Ar. 1,260 sq. miles; pop. 215,668.

Surf.—mountainous on the N. and S., level in the centre. Mu.—Sawell, 2,236 ft.; Mullaghclogher, 2,085 ft. Clim.—healthy, though moist. Mins.—limestone, old red sandstone, coal, slate, &c. Occ.—agric., with linen manf. Pars.—35. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bor. 1.

*Dungannon, 3; nr. are collieries. Omagh, 3. Strabane, 4.

Clogher, a decayed episcopal city with a cathed.

5. FERMANAGH, cap. Enniskillen.—Ar. 714 sq. miles; pop.

Surf.—much varied with hill and plain. Mtz.—Cuilcagh, 2,188 ft. Minz.—limestone, sandstone, building stone, Occ.—agric, and dairy farm. Pars.—18. Meas. to Park.—Oc. 3, Bor. 1.

*Emniskillen, 5, linens, cutlery; cel. for its brave defence against the forces of James 2nd in 1889.

6. CAVAN, cap. Cavan—Ar. 746 sq. miles; pop. 140,555.

bog. Mins.—clay, elate, yellow sandstone, iron, coal, lead, manganese, marl, potter's clay. Occ.—agric., with manf. of linens. Pars.—36. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2.

Cootehill, 2. Cavan. 3.

7. Monaghan, cap. Monaghan.—Ar. 499 sq. miles; pop. 112,785.

Surf.—undulating, interspersed with bogs and small lakes. Clim.—moist.

Mins.—limestone, slate, clay-slate, freestone. Occ.—agric., pastur., and flax. Pars.-19. Mems. to Parl.-Co. 2.

1 Monaghan, 3, linen. Clones, 2. Carrickmacross, 2.

8. Armagh, cap, Armagh.—Ar. 513 sq. miles; pop. 171,355.

Surf.—mountainous on the S. W., elsewhere flat or undulating. Mis.—Slieve Gullion, 1,863 ft. Mins.—clay-slate, limestone, new red sandstone,

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granite. Occ.-agric., manf. of linen. Pars.-28. Mems. to Park.-Co. 2. City 1.

*Armagh, 7, archiepiscopal see of all Ireland, with a Protestant cathedral carning.
on the site of one built by 8t. Patrick; also with a Roman Catholic cathed. Portadown, 5, linens.

Armagh was early cel. as a seat of learning.
Lurgan, 7, linens.

9. Down, cap. Downpatrick.—Ar. 957 sq. miles; pop. 277,775.

Surf.—hilly. Mts.—Mourne, cf. ht. Slieve Donard, 2,796 ft. Clim.—cold but healthy. Mins.—clay-slate, granite, red sandstone, limestone, lead and copper. Occ.—agric. bleaching, manf. of linens, fisheries. Pars.—70. Mens. to Parl .- Co. 2, Bors. 2.

*Downpairick, 3, linens, leather, soap, &c. | cathed. |
*Newry, 12, a river port, linen, corn, butter, &c. | Donaghadee, 3, a seaport. |
Newtown-Ards, 9, damasks, muslins. |
Newtown-Ards, 9, damasks, muslins. |

LESSON 64,-136,-Leinster contains 12 Counties.

10. LOUTH, cap. Dundalk.—Ar. 315 sq. miles; pop. 69,809.

Surf.—The North part consists of the peninsula of Carlingford, which is mountainous, the rest is undulating. Miss.—clay-slate, limestone, greenatone, occ.—agric., fisheries, and linen mant. Pars.—61. Mems to Parl.—Co. 2, Bors. 2.

*Dundalk, 10, a seaport, breweries, once the resid. of Edw. Bruce.

Drophéda (or Tredagh), 14, a scaport, decayed. linens, cottons.

Col. Sites.—1. About 2 m. W. of Drogheda, an obeliak marks the site where William 3rd gained a signal vict. over James 2nd on July 1st, 1690, known as the BATTLE OF THE BOYES. 2. At Demoter's Award Bruce, brother of king Robert Bruce, was crowned, but soon afterwards, in 1815, was killed in battle, 3. Ardes, in early Irish History, was the frontier town between the English Pale and Irish territory.

11. MRATH, cap. Trim.—Ar. 906 sq. miles; pop. 94,480.

Surf.—alightly undulating; cf. Riv., the Boyne. Clim.—cold and dry. Mins.—limestone, marl, shale. Occ.—agric. and past. Pars.—147. Mens. to l'arl.-Co. 2.

> Trim, 2. Navan, 3. Kells, 3, once a bishop's see.

Cel. Site.—At the Hill of Tara, 8 m. E. of Trim, it is said that the kings, elergy, and hards of freland, assembled every sed year, up to the close of the 6th cent to active the affairs of the country. In later times, it has served as a rendezvous to warlike assemblies.

12. West-Meath, cap. Mullingar.—Ar. 709 sq. miles; pop. 78,416.

Surf.—undulating, with many lakes and bogs. Clim.—mild and healthy. Mins.—limestone and black shale. Occ.—grazing and agric. Pars. 63. Mens. to Parl,-Co. 2, Bor. 1.

Mullingar, 5, a large market,

*Athlone, 5, with a cel. cas. and military station.

13. LONGFORD, cap. Longford.—Ar. 421 sq. miles; pop. 64,408.

Surf .- undulating on the West, elsewhere mostly flat and often boggy. Clim.—moist. Miss.—limestone, clay-slate, ironstone, and some coal. Occ.—grasing, dairy farming, and agric. Pars.—23. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2.

Longford, 4.

Edgeworthtown, 1, the resid of the Edgeions in the cause of education.

14. King's County, cap. Tullamore.—Ar. 772 sq. miles; pop. 75,781.

Surf .- flat, except in the South; the bog of Allen lies on the East. Clim .-

drier than in most Irish Counties. Mins.—limestone, greenstone, clay-slate. Occ.—grazing, with some agric. Pars.—32. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bor. 1.

the resid. of the Earl of Rosse, the astronomer. Tullamore, 4. Parsonstown, or Birr, 5; nr. is Birr Cas.

15. QUEEN'S COUNTY, cap. Maryborough.—Ar. 664 sq. miles; pop. 77,071.

Surf.—On the West are the Sileve-Bloom Mts., 1,691 ft., the centre is flat; on the East are the Dysart Hills and much bog land. Mins.—limestone, sandstone, ocal, iron, manganese, mari, fuller's earth. Occ.—agric., date farming, and manf. of woollens and cottons. Pars.—58. Mems. to Parl.— Co. 2, Bor. 1.

Maryborough, 2, so called from Queen Portarlington, 2.

16. KILDARE, cap. Athy.—Ar. 654 sq. miles; pop. 84,198.

elevated about 250 ft. above sea level, generally level, with much bog ; the cel. Curragh, alt. 450ft. is in the centre, and occupies 4,885 acres. Climmoist. Mins.—limestone, clay-slate, and old red sandstone. Occ.—agric., past., and manf. of cottons, woollens, and paper. Pars.—116. Mems to Parl.—Co. 2.

Athy, 4, trade in corn.
Maymoth, 2, with a Rom. Cath. College | priests.
for the training of Roman Catholic

17. Dublin, cap. Dublin.—Ar. 354 sq. miles; pop. 159,903.

Sury.—mostly level or undulating; on the N. is the peninsula called the 'Hill of Howth;' on the S. is Mt. Kippure, 2,473 ft. Clim.—temperate. Rainfall—24 in. Miss.—limestone, granite, clay-slate. Occ.—agric, market gardens, dairy farms, with manf. in Dublin. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Dublin city 2, University 2.

biblis, 245, the cap. of Ireland, an archiepiscopal see, with many splendid
buildings, two Prot. cathedrais (Christ
Church and St. Patrick's), a Rom. Cath.
cathed., a Prot. university styled
Trinity Col., with many literary and Dublis, 245, the cap. of Ireland, an archi-episcopal see, with many splendid buildings, two Prot. cathedrals (Christ Church and St. Patrick's), a Rom. Cath.

18. Wicklow, cap. Wicklow.—Ar. 781 sq. miles; pop. 78,509.

Surr .- The Coast is precipitous; the interior is mountainous, with numerous picturesque giens, and waterfalls, and some bog. Mts.—Lugnaquilla, 3,039 ft.; Table, 2,302 ft.; Douce, 2,384 ft.; Sugar-Loaf, 1,651 ft. Glens.—Glen-Imale, Glen-malure, Avon-more, Glen-do-lough, which latter was once an episcopal see, and now contains the ruins of the Seven Churches. Mins.—granite, clay-slate, quarts, copper, lead, iron, zinc, tin, &c. Occ.—dairy farming on the high lands, agric. on the level, with lead and copper mining. Pars.—59. Mems. to Parl.-Co. 2.

Wicklow, 3, a seaport, with ruins of an | Arklow, 4, seaport, with fisheries; here

the insurgents in 1798 were def. by Gen. Needham.

19. Wexford, cap. Wexford.—Ar. 901 sq. miles; pop. 182,506.

On the Coast, 7 m. off Carnsore Point is Tuskar-Rock on which is a lighthouse. Surj.—is mountainous on the N. and N. W., elsewhere it is moderately elevated. Mts.—Black-Stairs Chain, 2,411 ft. Mt. Leinster, 2,604 ft. Clim.—temperate. Miss.—clay-slate, granite, limestone. Occ.—agric. and dairy farming. Pars.—144. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bors. 2.

*Wexford, 12, seaport, ship building, grt. | *New Ross, 6, a river port. export trade. | Enniscorthy, 5.

Cel. Sites.—1. At Vinegar Hill, nr. Enniscorthy, the rebels were signally def. on June 31, 1798. 2. Wee/ord was the first town acquired by the English under Fitz-Stephen in 1170; it was at that time occ. by the Danes.

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20. Carlow, cap. Carlow.—Ar. 346 sq. miles; pop. 51,472.

Surf .- undulating, except in the South, with some bog. Mins .- granite and limestone. Occ.—agric. dairy farming, and malting. Pars.—47. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bor. 1.

*Carlow, 8, corn, bacon, &c.; its cas. has been the scene of many histor, events. Old Leighlin, a decayed tn., an episcop.

21. KILKENNY, cap. Kilkenny.—Ar. 796 sq. miles; pop. 96,638.

Surf .- undulating, hilly on the N. and S. Mts. - Castlecomer Hills, 1,027 ft.; Mt. Brandon, 1,696 ft. Clim.-drier than that of several of the counties. Mins.—limestone, anthracite coal, granite, iron, black marble. Occ.—agric. on the lower grounds, past. on the higher. Pars.—143. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2,

*Kilkenny, 12 (mostly Rom. Cath.), a Kells, with ruins of an abbey. cathed., breweries, distilleries.

At Kilkenny several Irish parliaments have been held; at one, held in 1367, the arrish Code, called the $Brekon\ Law$, was abolished, though it continued practically in operation till the time of James 1st.

LESSON 65.—137.—Munster contains 6 Counties.

22. TIPPERARY is divided into 2 Ridings. North and South, cap. Clonmel.—Ar. 1,659 sq. miles; pop. 212,234.

Surf.—The central part is undulating, the Northern and Southern are hilly.

Mts.—Arra, 1,558 ft.; Silver Mine, 2,255 ft.; Galty, 3,008 ft.; and Knockmeiledown, 2,598 ft. Clim.—healthy. Mins.—limestone, clay-slate, lead, and coal. Occ.—agric., dairy farms, and manf. of woollens. Pars.—193. Mems. to Parl. Co. 2. Bors. 2.

*Clonmel, 11, grt. market. Carrick-on-Suir, 5, corn. *Cashel, 3, a bishop's see,

Thurles, 4. Nenagh, 6. Tipperary, 5, the former county tn.

23. WATERFORD, cap. Waterford.—Ar. 721 sq. miles; pop.

Surf.—mountainous on the N. and West; undulating on the S. and East. Mts.—Cammeragh, 2,469 ft. Clim.—moist. Mins.—clay-slate, old red sandstone, iron, lead, marble, potter's clay. Occ.—dairy-farming and agric., with manf. of cotton and silk. Pars.—32. Mems to Parl.—Co. 2, Bors. 3.

*Waterford, 23, seaport, see of a bishop, has a cathed, great trade with Bristol in dairy prod. and live stock, brew-eries, foundries, has been the scene of many histor, events,

*Dungarvon, 5, seaport, fisheries, a bathing place.

Lismore, 2, hpl. of Boyle, the philos. and Congreve, the poet; is a bishop's see united with Waterford.

24. Cork is divided into 2 Ridings, East and West, cap. Cork. --Ar. of both Ridings, 2,885 sq. miles; pop. 437,664.

Surf .- mountainous on the West, elsewhere undulating, with much bog and sury.—incommons on the west, ensewhere industring, with much bog and moorland. Mis.—Hungry Hill, 2,249 ft., Nagles, and Boggra. Clim.—moist but healthy. Mins.—clay-slate, old red sandstone, limestone, coal, iron, copper, lead, and manganese. Occ.—agric., past., ship-building, and manf. of woollens. Pars.—251. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bors. 6.

*Cork, 78 (five-sixths of the pop. are Rom. Cath.), a seaport, seat of one of the Queen's Colls., large export trade, ship-building, manf. of lineus, woollens, paper, &c. Fermoy, 8. *Bandon, 6

scene of many historic events.

*Mallow, 3, with mineral springs.

*Youghal, 6, a seaport, salmon fishing;
long the resid. of Sir Walter Raleigh. Queenstown, 8, the port of Cork. Middleton, 3, in Cork Harbour.

*Kinsale, 4, seaport, grt. fishing station, Cloyne, 1, formerly a bishop's see.

The county of Cork, before 1172, formed a separate kingdom under the Mac Carthies, and near Cork city are the rules of Blarney Castle, built by a MacCarthy in /1449.

25. Kerry, cap. Tralee.—Ar. 1,853 sq. miles; pop. 196,014.

On the Coast are several islands, of which the chief are Valencia (formerly occ. by the Spaniards till the time of Cromwell), and the Blastets. Surf.—exceedingly diversified with mountain, glen, lake, and bog land. Mts.—Macgilliculdy's Reeks, 8,414 ft.; Caher, 8,200 ft.; Brandon, 8,127 ft., and Mangerton, 2,756 ft. The Lates of Killarney, celebrated for their romantic scenery, attract numerous visitors every year. Clim.—mild, except on the sea-coast, which is subject to heavy rains. Mins.—clay-slate, limestone, coal, iron, lead, and copper. Occ.—dairy-farming, agric. and fisheries. Pars.—83. Mems. to Pari.—Co. 2, Bor. 1.

*Trales, 10, a seaport; nr. is a much frequented spa.

Dingle, 3, a seaport.

Ardfert, now a vil., once a bishop's see.
Killarney, 5, one mile from the lower
Lake of Killarney.

26. LIMERICK, cap. Limerick.—Ar. 1,064 sq. miles; pop. 151.485.

Surf .- mountainous on the borders of the E., S., and West, with moor and bog land; in the centre it is undulating. Mts.-Slieve Phelim, Silver Mine, and Galty. Riv.—the Shannon. Clim.—mild but moist. Mins.—limestone, clay-slate, old red sandstone, cosl., marble. Occ.—dairy and stock farming, agric. and shipping. Pars.—128. Mems. to Parl.—O. 2, Bor. 2.

*Limerick, 39 (most of the pop. are Rom, Cath.), a river port on the Shannon, a bishop's see, manf. of woollens, linens, cotton, paper, &c. It was a royal seat of the kings of Thomond, bef. the

conquest. At the Revolution in 1688, it declared for James 2nd; was unsuccessfully besieged by William 3rd in 1690, but capitulated in 1691 to Gen. Ginkel.

27. Clare, cap. Ennis.—Ar. 1,294 sq. miles; pop. 147,994.

Surf.—mostly hilly, with some level tracts. Clim.—though exposed to violent gales from the Atlantic, is healthy. Mins.—limestone, clay-slate, coal, iron, lead, copper, marble, and fiagstone. Occ.—pastur., agric., manf. of linen, and fisheries. Pars.—80. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bor. 1.

*Ewnis, 7.
Kilrush, 4. Beaport.
Killaloe, I. a bishop's see, with a cathed.;
mr. is Kincorra, a vil., once the resid.

of King Brian Boromh. Clare, now a vil., was once the county tn., the old cas. is now a barrack.

138.—Connaught contains 5 Counties.

28. GALWAY is divided into 2 Ridings, East and West, cap. Galway.—Total ar. 2,447 sq. miles; pop. 235,073.

The Coast is much indented; near it are the isles of Arran, &c. The Surf. of the county on the West includes Lakes Corrib and Mask, the mountainous region of Connemars, and the district called 'Joyce County.' On the E. of Lake Corrib, the surf. is either fiat or undulating, with much bog; the South is hilly. Mts.—Twelve Pins, Mamturk, and Sliere Boughta. Clim.—mild and damp. Mins.—limestone, sandstone, granite, clay-slate, copper, lead, marble, and iron. Occ.—chiefly grazing, with some agric., manf. of coarse woollens, and fisheries. Pars.—120. Mens. to Part.—Co. 2, Bor. 2.

*Galway, 13, a scaport, seat of one of the Queen's Colls, has barracks, brewerles, manf. of paper, &c. The old part of the town bears strong resemb. to a Spanish town, evidencing its early intercourse

Tuam, 4, an episcopal see. Clonfert, now a vil., formerly a bishop's Ballinasloe, 3, grt. ann. cattle fair. Athenry, an anc. but decayed tn.

Cel. Site.—At Aghrim, 4 m. from Ballinasloe, Gen. Ginkell gained a vict. over the forces of James 2nd in 1691.

29. MAYO, cap. Castlebar.—Ar. 2,131 sq. miles; pop. 245,558.

The Coast is much indented; near are the islands of Achill, Clare, and some others. Surf.—on the N. W. is the peninsula called 'The Mullet;' of the internor, part is mountainous and part undulating, with moor and loog land. Mss.—Nephin Beg and Crosgh Patrick. Clim.—moist. Mins.—llmestone, granite, slate, red. sandstone, marble, iron, manganese. Occ.—chiefly past.,

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with agric., manf. of linen, and salmon and herring fisheries. Pars.-68. Mems, to Parl. Co. 2.

('astlebar, 3, manf. of coarse linens. Westport, 3, seaport, manf. of linen. Ballina, 5, a river port, with salmon

fisheries. Kiliala, a small seaport, a bishop's see, now united to Tuam.

30. SLIGO, cap. Sligo.—Ar. 721 sq. miles; pop. 115.311.

Surf .- greatly diversified mountains and bogs being intermixed with level tracts. Ms.—Ox Mts. and Truskmore. Clim.—subject to frequent rain, but healthy. Mins.—limestone, granite, red sandstone, iron, and copper. Occ.—past., with agric. and fisheries. Pars.—41. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2, Bor. 1.

*Slige, 10, seaport, fishing station.

31. Leitrim, cap. Carrick-on-Shannon.—Ar. 613 sq. miles; pop. 95,342.

Surf .- on the N. it is mountainous with some bog; in the centre is Lough Allen; S. of this the surf, is undulating. Clim.—nw and damp in the N.; in the S. more genial. Mins.—millstone-grit, iron, lead, copper, limestone, &c. Occ.—grazing, agric., and manf. of coarse linens and woollens. Pars.—17. Mems. to Parl.—Co. 2.

Carrick-on-Shannon, 1, is only a small place.

32. Roscommon, cap. Roscommon. -Ar. 950 sq. miles; pop.

Surf.—mountainous on the N.; undulating on the E. with much bog-land. Clim.—cold and moist. Mins.—limestone, sandstone, iron, potter's-clay, and some coal. Occ.—chiefly grazing, with some agric. Pars.—58. Mems. to Purl.

Roscommon, 2; nr. are the ruins of an | Elphin, 1. a bishop's see, now annexed to abbey built by O'Connor, prince of | Kilmore and Ardagh. Connaught.

LESSON 66.-139.-HISTORY

a. THE EARLY PERIOD .- The Irish belong to the Gaëlic division of the Celtic a. THE EARLY PERIOD.—The Irish belong to the Gaene division of the Celtic family, and are supposed to have emigrated before Casar's time, chiefly from Britain, partly from Gallia Celtica', and probably in part from the Celtic part of Spain. When Britain was invaded by the Romans, Ireland was called lerne or Iserne, or Hibernia, and was occupied by the Isernia, Brigantes, and Corional on the South; by the Eblāni, Cauci, Menapli, and other tribes on the East and North. As the inhabitants were even more barbarou sthan those of Britain, the Romans never attempted the conquest of the island.

About 350 A.D. the Scotti, ancestors of the modern Scotch Highlanders, who then occupied the Northern and Eastern parts of Ireland, emigrated either wholly or in great numbers to the Western shores of Caledonia, and gradually extended their influence, so as to give their own name to the land of their

ĸ.,

About 433 A.D. Christianity was introduced into Ireland by St. Patrick (whose original name was Masor), a native, it is said, of Bonaven Tabernae, supposed to be Kilpatrick, at the mouth of the Clyde in Scotland. St. Patrick founded a

to be Anjudroc, at the mouth of the Ciydue in Sectional. So, Patrick however, as the mouth of the church and school at Armagh, and others in other places. The idea, however, of his having converted the savage tribes of all Ireland is simply preposterous. Ireland was early divided into five petty Kingdoms; namely, 1. Meath, the smallest, but nominally the chief; 2. Leinster; 3. Munster; 4. Commanght; and 5. Ulster. Bestdes these, there were many chieftains or heads of Septs, who were nearly independent. These kings and chiefs were generally at war with each other; the submission to the king was only so long as he had power to enforce his claim. The people were divided into clans or septs; among whom enforce his claim. The people were civided into claim of replay among whom the common people were mere slaves, under the control and at the mercy of their chiefs. The Succession to a kingdom or chieftainship was determined not by primogeniture, but by a law called Tanistry; that is, a tenure of land or sovereignty, by which the occupier had only a life interest, and to this he was admitted by election. The successors were generally elected from the family or kindred of the reigning prince or chieftain during his lifetime. This practice led to perpetual contentions. The Laws called Bremon were such as might be expected from a barbarous people, and were administered in the open air by hereditary judges called Brehons. By these laws the most atrocious crimes might be compounded for by an eric or fine; and, as in all cases, the greater part of the fine went to the chief, he would thus not be anxious to stop the source of his gains.

About 795 A.D. the Danes invaded Ireland, and became masters of a considerable part of the Eastern and Southern coasts, on which they either built or occupied several towns, particularly Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, and Cork. The preceding is a sketch of the condition of Ireland as it existed before the

English Invasion.

- b. THE ENGLISH PERIOD.—In 1168, Dermot Mac Murrough, King of Leinster, having been driven from his throne on account of an act of violence and general oppression, took refuge in England and solicited the sid of Henry 2nd, who permitted, on condition of allegiance to himself, Earl Strongbow and Robert Fitz-Stephen to raise forces in order to restore the fugitive to his throne. By their aid Mac Murrough was reinstated. Shortly after, in 1171, Henry himself with a large force landed at Waterford, and claimed and received both from Mac Murrough and from other native princes, their submission, and promised allegiance to him as Lord Paramount. Having settled the government, Henry apportioned large districts to his Norman followers, and appointed his son John the Lord-Deputy. In 1210, in the reign of John, English Laws and Customs were partially introduced into that part of the country directly subject to English Rule, called 'The Palze.' This comprised Leinster, Munster, and part of Ulster, which were then divided into 12 Countes, namely, Dublin, Kildare, Meath, Uriel or Louth, Catherlow or Carlow, Kilkenny, Wexford, Waterford, Cork, Limerick, Kerry, and Tipperary. Meath was subsequently subdivided into the present Meath, Westmeath, Longford, Cavan, and King's County. The native princes of Connaught, Ulster, and part of the midland districts, not only continued to exercise sovereign authority in their own districts, but frequently made inroads into the English territory. This, of course, provoked reprisals. To add to the miseries occasioned by this disturbed state, the country was invaded in 1315, by the Scotch under Edward, brother of King Robert Bruce. He was however ultimately defeated and slain near Dundalk in 1318.
- c. In 1327, Edward 3rd succeeded his father, and endeavoured to conciliate the Irish, by permitting burgesses to sit along with the nobles in their Parliament. The conduct, however, of the subject chiefs, even within the Pale was so violent, that Edward was ultimately compelled, about 1365, to pass some stringent Laws to restrain them. These are known as THE STATUTE OF KILKENNY. His successor Richard 2nd twice visited Ireland with a large force, in 1394 and 1399, on which occasions he received the submission not only of the chiefs within the Pale, but beyond it. During the contest between the houses of York and Lancaster, Ireland was the scene of contention and misery. The English Pale was invaded and ravaged, and the sufferers in revenge made incursions into the neighbouring districts; while the great feudal barons were factious and turbulent. At length, in the reign of Henry 1th, SIR EDWARD POYNING (a man of energy and talent) was made Lord-Deputy. Poyning procured an act to be passed in the parliament assembled at Drogheda in 1495, that no parliament should in future be held in Ireland without Licence from the King of England, and that no Bill should be submitted to its consideration without having been previously approved of by the English Government. This restricted the power of the Irish Parliament to the mere acceptance or rejection of bills approved by the English government. The measure, however, appeared at that time necessary, as these parliaments had frequently been the mere not that their enactments were frequently conflicting and productive of disturbances.
- d. Early in the reign of Henry 8th, a Rebellion arose in consequence of the fends existing between the rival families of Fits Gerald, Earl of Kildare, the Lord Lieutenant, and Butler, Earl of Ormond. This was crushed in 1534. In 1542, Henry assumed the title of King instead of Lord of Ireland. The Reformed Religion was embraced by the English settlers in the reign of Edward 6th about 1548. In the reign of Edward 6th about 1548. In the reign of Edward 6th about 1548. In the reign of Edward 6th about 1548 in the reign of Edward 6th about 1548. In the reign of Edward 6th about 1548, In the reign of Edward 6th about 1548, In the reign of Edward 6th about 1548. In the reign of Edward 6th about 1548, In the reign of Edward 6th about 1548, In the reign of Edward 6th about 1548, In the reign of Edward 1548, In the reign of E

- e. About 1612, James 1st resolved upon colonising the waste districts of Ireland, and allotting the land in portions of 2,000, 1,500, and 1,000 acres. Rach possessor was required to build on the estate a substantial house and improve the land. In some cases, Irish chieftains were allowed to possess on these terms, and to have Irish tenants, or condition that these latter should abandon their wandering and predatory habits, and dwell together in peaceful and industrious pursuits. Hundreds of English and Scotch mechanics with their families, and all necessary appliances for their several trades, were then sent to Ulster and other parts. Churches were endowed and schools established in the various districts. Afterwards, James, to complete his benevolent design, declared all the people in Ireland equally his subjects, abolished the whole of the Brehon Laws, and substituted for them those of England; completed the division of the country into Counties, appointing Sheriffs over each; and stationed a small army in Ireland at the expense of England to avoid levying contributions on the people. Regular Circuits for the administration of justice were formed, and Charters of Incorporation were bestowed upon the larger towns. For the first time members were returned to Parliament from all parts of Ireland, the number of whom was ultimately fixed at 300. The good effects of these wise regulations soon began to appear in the spreading Prosperity of the Island.
- f. A turbulent chieftain, however, named O'Dogherty, along with others, enraged at the abolition of the Brehon Laws, which made murder and other crimes purchasable as any manufactured luxury, and hating the very beneficence of English Rule, stirred up a rebellion. This was soon crushed, and Dogherty imself killed by a random shot. The substitution, however, of the English for the Brehon Laws (not only with regard to criminal cases, but with relation to the distribution of property), and the patronage of the Protestant Religion by the State (though the Boman Catholios had perfect freedom of conscience) were considered as grievances by the old Irish, which needed only a daring leader and a fitting opportunity to plunge the now prosperous country into the horrors of a civil war. Unfortunately, such leaders were at hand in Roger Moore, Sir Phelim O'Neill and others, who, availing themselves of the disagreement existing between the English parliament and Charles 1st, secretly plotted a horrible and formidable Conspiracy for regaining frish Independence and re-establishing the Romish Religion. The Insurrection broke out in 1641, when the most atroctous cruelties were committed on the innocent Protestants. Thousands were butchered by the infuristed rebels, and thousands perished from famine. Dublin, Belfast, and a few other places alone escaped the general massacre. The country continued to be a prey to civil war till 1649, when Cromediappeared with a well disciplined army, took Drogheds by storm, which he delivered up to military execution, and, by his vigorous though severe measures, quickly reduced the whole country to submission. The Confiscations that followed were so extensive that nearly four-fifths of the soil were transferred to new proprietors. After this tremendous visitation, Ireland continued tranquil and proeperous till the events connected with the Revolution again made it the theatre of sanguinary contests.
- g. In 1688 James 2nd, after his flight from England, landed with some French troops in Ireland, where he was well received. He laid siege to Derry, from which he was nobly repulsed by the distinguished bravery of the Rev. George Walker; he was also successfully repulsed from Enniskillen. At length, on the 1st of July, 1690, the Battle of The Boyne was gained by William 3rd; and, on the 12th of July, 1691, Gen. Ginkell, afterwards Earl of Athlone, defeated the combined Irish and French forces commanded by St. Ruth. After this, James escaped from Ireland, and the Irish forces retreated to Limerick. On the capitulation of Limerick, Oct. 3, 1691, many of the Irish soldiers enlisted into the service of France. The capitulation of Limerick was followed by extensive confiscations and the enactment of penal restrictions against the Roman Catholies. The rigour, however, of the penal laws was modified in the reign of George 3rd, in 1778.
- h. In 1782, when England was involved in a contest with her revolted Colonies, the Irish took advantage to demand that their Parliament should be independent of the English Council, which under the emergency was conceded. In May 1798, the IRISH REBELLION broke out, aided by the French Republicans; but General Lake, who had been appointed over the English forces in Ireland, eventually crushed it in the memorable conflict at Vinegar Hill in 1799. 'At length,' to quote the words of Mr. Macculloch, in his Geographical Dictionary, 'the British Government wisely determined to effect a LEGISLATIVE UNION

between Great Britain and Ireland, and to suppress the separate Legislature of the latter. This measure, notwithstanding a strenuous opposition, was happing carried, and took effect from Jan. 1, 1800. 'Its maintenance should be regarded as a fundamental principle of policy, and every effort should be made to remove all just grounds of complaint on the part of the Irish people.'

i. SINCE THE UNION the following Beneficial Measures have been passed for the amelioration of Ireland. The Roman Catholic Emancipation Act passed in 1829, by which Romanists became sligible to any office under government, except those of Lord Lieutenant and Lord Chancellor, though the latter has since been conceded. In 1832 the Irish Reform Bill was passed; and, in 1838, the Poor Law Bill. In 1845 the Irish National Education Society was incorporated; and, on the failure of the Potato Crop throughout Ireland, graphs amounting to 10,000,000. were voted by the imperial Parliament for the relief of the sufferers. In Sept. 1848 the Encumbered Estate Act passed.

j. The following are a few of the Disturbances which have occurred since the Union, occasioned by mischievous and interested Demagogues for their own selfish ends. In 1843 a Repeat Movement was egitated by O'Connell and others, for which they were tried and convicted. In 1848 an Insurrection of the populace took place, which was quickly suppressed, and the principal insti-gators convicted and transported. In 1866, in consequence of an extensive conspiracy formed by a party called *Fentana*, the *Habeas Corpus Act* was suspended, and many of the leaders tried and imprisoned.

LESSON 67.--AN EXPLANATION OF BRITISH GEOGRAPHICAL ETYMOLOGIES.

140.—Prefixes explained.

Ab,-aber (Fr. havre), the opening or mouth of a river; as, Aber-deen.

Ald, old; as, Ald-borough.
Alb,-alp, high, white; as, Alb-ion. Ar, ard, aird (Lat. arduus), high,

height; as, Ar-ran.
Bal, ball, a village, township; as, Bal-moral.

Beau, bel (Lat. bellus), fine, pleasant;

as, Beau-fort, Bel-voir. Ben, bein, pen; a hill; as, Ben-ledi, Pent-lands.

Blair, a plain clear of woods; as, Blair-Athol

Brae, bre, highland, a hill; as, Braemar, Bre-chin.

Caer, car (Lat. castrum), fort, a fortified town; as, Caer-leon in Monmonthshire; Car-diff.

Cairn, a heap of stones, a mountain; as, Cairn-gorm.

Carse, a Celtic term denoting several contiguous valleys under cultivation; as, the Carse of Gowrie in Perth.

Craig, Carrick, a craggy hill; as, Craig-nethan.

Dum, dun, don (Lat. dumus), a place abounding with briars, a town near; as, Dum-barton.

Eccles, eglis (Lat. ecclesia), a church;

as, Eccles-hall. Ennis, inis, inch, inish, an island; as, Inch-keith.

Glen, the narrow valley of a river;

as, Glen-garry in Perth.

Holy, sacred; as, Holy-head. Inver, inner, mouth of a river; as,

Inver-esk. Kil, cill, (Lat. cella), a cell, chapel;

as, Kil-dare.

Kin, ken, a cape, headland; as. Kin-ross.

Kirk, a church, church-town; as, Kirk-wall.

Llan (Brit.), a church, church-town; as, Llan-daff.

Mont, monte (Lat. mons), a mountain; as, Mont-gomery.

Rath, ruth, a fortified place; as, Ruth-ven.

Slieve, a hill; as, Slieve-bloom. Strath, a broad valley; as, Strath-more.

141.—Postfixes explained.

Avon, water, there are several anons.

Battle, bottle, bole (a corrupt. of botel, botle), a dwelling-place; as, Newbottle.

Berg, bury, burgh, burg, borough, &c., a hill, fortified place, or corporate town; as, Scar-borough, Canter-bury.

Bie, bigh, by, a station, village; as, Der-by, Kirk-by.

Bourn, burn, a brook, rivulet; as, Bannock-burn.

Bridge (a pre. and postfix) a passge over a river; as, Bridge-north, Stour-bridge.

Brook, broke, brock, brocken, beck, a small stream; as, Coln-brook.

Caster, chester (Lat. castrum), an encampment, or fortified town; as, Chester, Lan-caster.

Coln (Lat. colonia), a colony; as, Lin-coln.

Dale, a valley, meadow (pre. and postfix); as, Clydes-dale, Dal-keith. Ea, ey, ay, &c., an isle; as, Orkn-ey,

Angles-ea. Feld, fell, a mountain; as, Crossfell, Sca-fell.

Field, a field or plain; as, Sheffield.

Ford, the shallow of a river; as, Ox-ford.

Gate, an entrance; as, Kirk-gate. Hum, home, a town or village; as, Chelten-ham.

Haven, a harbour; as, White-haven. Hithe, hythe, a little haven; as,

Green-hithe. Holnie, low land, or a river isle;

as, Ax-holme, Horn, a dwelling; as, Whit-horn.

Hurst, a thicket; as, Brocken-hurst in Hants.

Law, a detached mountain; as, Dunse-law in Berwick.

Ley, a pasture, common; as, Berkley. Lin, a deep pool, a town near one;

as, Dub-lin. Marsh, low land.

Minster (Sax. mynster; Lat. monaslerium), a monastery or abbey; as, West-minster.

Moor, more, muir, heathy ground; as, Ex-moor.

Mouth, the part where a river emp-

ties itself; as, Ex-mouth.

Ness, a point, headland : as, Caith-2000

Pool, an enclosed water, a harbour; as, Liverpool.

Port (Lat. portus), a harbour; as, Devon-port.

Rig, rigg, a high range of land; as, Rig-ton, Ask-rigg.

Rose, ross, a promontory, or fort upon one; as, Cul-ross.

Stock, a place; as, Wood-stock. Stow, a place, residence; as, Chep-

Street (Lat. strata), paved ways ; as, Chester-le-street.

Thorp, throp, a village; as, Arm-thorp, Thorp-Arch.

Town, ton, tone, an enclosure, a town; as, Bos-ton.

Toft, a field; as, Al-toft.

Try, a village, town; as, Coven-try. Well, a spring of water; as, Holywell.

Wald, weald, wold, a woody district;

as, the Wealds of Kent.
Wic, wick, wich (Lat. vicus), a village or town-; as, Aln-wick.

Worth, a farm, court, village; as, Ack-worth.

LESSON 68.—142. An Explanation of the Geological AND GENERAL GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS OCCURRING IN GEOGRAPHICAL WORKS.

Alluvial (Lat. alluvies, a muddy stream), produced by the deposit of mud washed down by water.

Ammonite, a fossil shell of a spiral form; so-called from a title of Jupiter when represented with a ram's horns. Ante, a Lat. prep. signifying before;

as, ante-date. Anti (Gr. ἀντί, anti), a Greek prep.

signifying against, opposite to. Arctic (Gr. aparos, arktos, a bear, the north), the North pole. Antarctic is the South Pole. Anta-pides, personal ving on the opposite side of the globe, whose feet are, as it were, applied against ours.

Archipel'ago (Gr. apxós, arkos, chief, πελαγος, pelágos, the sea), applied to the Ægēan Sea, E. of Greece; also, to a group of islands.

Argillaceous (Lat. argilla, white clay), consisting of pure clay.

Atmosphere (Gr. atmos, atmos, vapour, σφαιρα, sphaira, a globe), the mass of air surrounding the earth.

Afoll, a coral island, consisting of a circular belt of coral with a lake in the centre.

Austral (Lat. auster, the south wind), belonging to the South.

Barilla (Spanish), an impure carbothe south

nate of soda

Barom'eter (Gr. Bápos, baros, weight, µетрог, metron, a measure), an instrument for measuring the weight or pressure of the air, and thus foretelling the changes in the weather.

Basalt, a close-grained rock, dark coloured, and arranged in columns.

Calcareous (Lat. calx, lime), containing lime. powder by heat.

Carboniferous (Lat. carbo, coal:

fero, I bear), yielding coal. Centigrade (Lat. centum, a hundred; gradus, a degree), consisting of 100 degrees; the scale on which thermometers are constructed in France

Centrifugal (Lat. centrum, a centre; fugio, I flee), having a tendency to fly from the centre. Centrip'čtal (from centrum; and peto, I seek), a tendency towards the centre.

Cereal (Lat. ceres, the goddess of corn), belonging to eatable grain.

Chalybeate (Gr. χάλυψ, chalūps, steel), containing iron.

Concave (Lat. con, with cavus, hollow), the inner surface of hollow bodies.

Convex (Lat. convexus), the ex-ternal surf. of globular bodies; the

Lopp. to concave. Concentric (Lat. con, with centrum, a centre), having a common

Eccentric, not having the same

centre. Converge (Lat. con, together; vergo, I incline), to tend to one

point. Diverge (Lat. dis and vergo), to

branch out from one point. Cor'al (Gr. κοράλλιον, korallion), the stony skeleton of zoöphytes.

Cretaceous (Lat. creta, chalk), relat-

ing to chalk.

Cumbrian (Cumbria, Cumberland), a name given to the strata of rocks largely occurring in Cumberland, &c. Detta(the Greek letter A), a triangular tract of land enclosed within two or more mouths of a river; as, the Delta of the Nile.

Devonian (Devon), a term applied to the old red sandstone system which

particularly prevails in Devonshire.

Diluvium (Lat. diluo, I wash away), deposits caused by the violent action of water.

Ecliptic (Gr. en, ek, from; λείπω, leipō, I leave, forsake), the circle of the heavens which forms the apparent annual path of the sun.

Equator (Lat. æque, I make equal), an imaginary circle surrounding the earth at an equal distance from each pole.

Equinoctial (Lat. æquus, nor, night), the points at which the ecliptic intersects the celestial equator, when the days and nights are equal.

LESSON 69.—Farinaceous (Lat. farina, flour), consisting of meal

Fauna (Lat. Faunus. a rustic deity), the entire collection of animals peculiar to a country.

Ferruginous (Lat. ferrum, iron; gigno, I produce), yielding iron.
Foliated (Lat. folium, a leaf), re-

sembling leaves.

Fossil (Lat. fodio, fossum, I dig), petrified forms of plants and animals dug out of the earth. Fossiliferous (from fodio and fero, I bear) contain-ing fossil remains of animals and vegetables.

Friable (Lat. frio, I break or crumble), easily crumbled.

Gibbous (Lat. gibbus, a hunch on the

back), applied to the moon when more than half full.

Glacier (Lat. glacies, ice), a mass of snow and ice.

Gness (pr. nice), a hard tough crystalline rock, differing from granite in being of a slaty texture.

Granite (Lat. granum, a grain), a stone consisting of grains of quartz, felspar, and mica; the common colours are greyish, white, and fleshred.

Grit, any hard sandstone in which the grains are sharper than in ordinary sandstone.

Gyp sum (Gr. γύψος, gupsos, chalk), a soft white mineral from which

plaster of Paris is made.

Horizon (Gr. opiζω, horizō, I bound), the line which bounds the view on the surface of the earth.

Igneous (Lat. ignis, fire), relating to Indigenous (Lat. in, in; giyno, I produce), native to a country.

Inorganic (from in, not; opvavov, organon, an instrument), without the organs of life.

Isother mal (Gr. loos, isos, equal; θέρμη, thermē, heat), having equal heat; applied to inaginary lines drawn round the globe, and passing over places where the mean temperature is equal.

Lagoon (Lat. lacuna, a morass), a shallow lake.

Laminated (Lat. lamina, a plate), arranged in plates or scales.

Lias (probably a corruption of liers or layers, from its occurrence in thin beds), applied to thin-bedded limestones occurring at the base of the oölitic system.

Ligneus (Lat. lignum, wood), consisting of wood.

Limestone, stone of which lime is made by the expulsion of its carbonic acid.

Loadstone (lead and stone), an ore of iron which has the power of attract. ing metallic iron. Loam, soil composed of clay and

sand. Lode (from Saxon laedan, to lead), a

metallic vein, or any vein or course. Magnet (Gr. µáyvns, magnes, the loadstone), a peculiar ore of iron which has the property of attracting pieces of iron, and of pointing to the

Marl, a term given to all friable or crumbly compounds of lime and clay.

Metal (Gr. μίταλλον, metallon, a metal), a substance having a peculiar lustre. The metals are found either native or in combination with other substances; as, lead-ore, iron-ore, &c. Metallurgy is the art of separating metals from their ores, by smelting, refining, &c.

Mica (Lat. mico, I glitter), a soft glistening mineral, chiefly composed of silica (or flint), potash, and mag-

Minerals (mine), any inorganic substance, existing naturally within the earth, or at its surface; as, stones, alum, iron-ore, copper, &c.

LESSON 70 .- Monsoons, periodical winds, blowing six months from the same quarter or point of the compass, then changing and blowing the same time from the opposite quarter.

Nature (Lat. natus, born, produced), a term for the Deity's works and the Laws by which He directs them.

Oblite (Gr. wov, bon, an egg; λίθος, lithos, a stone), limestone composed of small rounded particles like the eggs or roe of a fish.

Orbit (Lat. orbis, a wheel), the curved course in which any body moves in its revolution round a central bedy.

Organic (Gr. opyavov, organon, an instrument), relating to bodies which have organs; in geology, applied to the accumulations made to the crust of the earth by the agency of animals and vegetables.

Pateoxic (Gr. π ahaiós, palaios, ancient; $\zeta_{\omega\eta}$, 200, life), the lowest division of stratified groups as holding the most ancient forms of animal life.

Perennial (Lat. per, through; annus, a year), lasting through many years.

Petrify (Gr. πέτρα, petra, stone; facio, I make), to change into stone. Phase (Gr. φάσις, phasis, an appearance), the different appearances which the moon or a planet presents.

Physical (Gr. φύσις, phūsis, nature), belonging to natural or material things.

Plane (Lat. planus, flat), a level surface.

Poly (Gr. πολύς, polus, much, many), as, Poly-nesia (πολυς and νησος, nesos, an island), the many islands.

Promontory (Lat. pro, in front of, mons, a mountain), the projecting part of a mountain. [flint.

Quartz, crystallised silica or pure Schist (pr. shist) (Gr. σχίζω, schīzō, I split), applied to rocks which have a leafy structure and split into thin irregular plates.

Scoria (Gr. σκώρ, skor, dross), scoriae, the cinders of volcanic eruptions.

Shale (Germ. schdlen, to peel off), applied to clayey strata which split up or peel off in thin plates.

Shingle, loose imperfectly rounded stones and pebbles,

Silica (Lat. silex, flint), containing flint.

Silurian (Lat. Silüres, the ancient peop. of Wales), a term applied to slaty, gritty, and calcareous beds containing fossils which abound in South Wales.

Slate, a clayey stone, which readily splits into plates.

Spar, a mineral which breaks up with regular surfaces, and has some degree of lustre.

Spelter, native impure zinc, con-

taining lead, copper, iron, &c.
Stalactite (Gr. σταλάζω, stalāzo, I drop), a concretion of carbonate of lime hanging from the roof of a cave. Stratum (Lat. sterno, stratum, I spread), a term applied to the layers in which rocks lie one above another. Stratification is an arrangement in layers.

Talc, a mineral consisting of magnesia, potash, and silica, arranged in broad, flat, smooth plates, of a shining lustre, and often transparent.

Temperature (Lat. tempero, I mode-rate), the state of anything with regard to heat and cold.

Thermom'eter (Gr. θέρμη, thermē, heat, μετρον, metron, a measure), is an instrument for measuring the heat or temperature of bodies. It consists of a glass tube with a bulb at the bottom, into which quicksilver is put, with a scale of figures along the tube to mark the rising of the quicksilver. The atmosphere affects the metallic fluid in the bulb, and according to its warmth, causes it to expand and rise in the tube. In Fahrenheit's Thermometer, which is generally used in England, 32 is marked as the freezing point, that is to say, when the quick-silver or mercury is at 32, water freezes; and the more it is below that point, the more intense is the frost. When it falls to O, it is said to be at Zero, the lowest point, or intensely cold. At 60, the air is reckoned temperate; at 76, we have Summer heat; at 98, the heat is equal to that of the blood in the average of living men; and 212 is the point at which water boils.

Trade winds (so named because favourable to trade and navigation), denote certain regular winds in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, to the dist. of 30° N. of the Equator, and 30° S. of the Equator. These blow constantly the same way a certain length of time, and then as long in an opposite direction.

Trilobites (Gr. τρείς, treis, three; λοβος, lobos, a lobe), fossil crustaceous animals, having the upper surface of the body divided into 3 lobes.

Wealden (Sax. wold, a deposit pre-

vailing in Kent and Sussex, consisting chicily of clays and shales, with beds of indurated sand and shelly limestone.

stone.

Zodiac (Gr. ¿&Stov. zōdion, a little animal), the zone of the heavens included within a space of the celestial sphere extending a few degrees North and South of the Ecliptic, and within

which the apparent motions of the planets are included. Zone, a division of the terraqueous globe with respect to the different degrees of heat found in the different parts of it.

Zöölite (Gr. ζωον, zöön, an animal; λιθος, lithos, a stone), a petrified or fossil animal substance.

90 EUROPEAN GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY. [Lesson 71.

LESSONS 71, 72.-143. TABLE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

LESSONS 71, 72.—1	40. IAB	LE OF THE	DRITISH EMPIR	.E
	Ar. in sq. m.	Pop. in 1871	Mode of Acquis.	Date
IN EUROPE-				_
British Islands in 1871 England and Wales Scotland Ireland	58,820 30,084 82,518	22,704,108 3,858,618 £,402,759		
Isle of Man and Channel Lalands	813	144,480		
Army and Navy abroad	5]	207,198 2,800	Ceded by Den-	1814
Gibraltar (including 6,212	2	24,175	\ mark \ \ Conq. from Spain	1704
military) . Malta and Gozo . (Troops additional, 7,092)	122	143,003	Conq. from France	1800
In Asia—			(Settlement and)	1612to
British India	955,238 596,790	47,909,000	{ Conq.	1864
Protected States	24,700	2,088,000	Partly from the Dutch in	1696
Straits Settlements, comprising Singapore, Penang, and Ma- lacca	1,518	800,000	{ Settlement and } purchase	
Aden and Perim Hong-Kong	20 80	50,000 125,000	Conq. Ceded by China	1839 1842
Labuan	45	4,800	Ceded	1846
IN AFRICA— Cape Colony	200,610	566,000	Conq. from the	1806
Natal	24,000	193,000	Dutch Settlement	1848
Gambia	20 468	7,000 41,600	do. do.	1618 1787
Gold Coast	6,000	251,846 110,000	do. Purchase	1816
Ascension	84 47	500 6,400	Settlement Ceded by the Dutch	1815
Mauritius and its dependencies	864	822,000	Conq. from France	1810
IN AMERICA-		-		
1. Canadian Dominion, which now (1872) embraces:—				
a. { British Columbia and Vancouver's Island }	286,000	103,000	Settlement	1858
Late Hudson's Bay Ter. including Rupert Land,	9 900 000		Settlement	1668
and Manitoba, or Red River Settlement	2,800,000		Sectionent	1000
c. Canada Proper d. New Brunswick	831,280 27,105	8,318,407 811,692	Conq. from France Ceded by France	1759 1763
e. Nova Scotia	15,600	888,000	Settlement	1627 1763
f. Cape Breton 2. Not yet (1872) included in the Dominion:—	3,125	63,000	Ceded by France	1103
a. Prince Edward's Island .	2,178	96,000	Settlement	1623
b. Newfoundland c. Labrador	40,200 170,000	146,000 5,000	Settlement	1668
8. British Honduras	13,500	26,000	Ceded by Spain Conq. from the	1783
4. British Guyana	76,000 7,600	185,000 600	Dutch Ceded by Spain	1771
/ Personal Impires	1,000	300	Could by Spath	

TABLE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE--continued.

	Ar. in sq. m.	Pop. in 1871	Moče of Acquis.	Date
IN AMERICA—conf. West India and Bermuda Islands, comprising Antigna, Bahamas, Barbadoes, Bermudas, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica (6,400 sq. m., Pop. 441,265, cap. Spanish Town), Montserrat, St. Christopher's and Anguilla, Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Tobago, Trinidad, Virgin Isles, Turk's and Caicos Islands, &c. IN AUSTRALANIA—	95,000	965,800	(Conq. and Settlement at various times)	
Queensland New South Wales Victoria South Australia and North Ter. West Australia Tasmania New Zealand, North Isle South Isle	678,600 823,437 86,831 [750,000 978,000 26,215 44,500 55,100	109,000 502,000 731,870 185,000 21,000 99 500 256,167 Whites and 88,840 Maories	Settlement db. do. do. do. do. do. do. do.	1859 1788 1885 1886 1829 1808
Stewart Isle . Norfolk Isle .	1,000 14	?	do. do.	1788

LESSON 73.—FRANCE.

- 144a. Physical.—France (anc. Gallia Transalpīna) in its extreme Length is 680 miles; Breadth 585 miles; Area in 1870, including Corsica and Savoy, was 209,352 sq. miles; Pop. in 1866, 38,067,094. By the cession of Alsace and part of Lorraine to Germany in Feb. 1871, it lost 5,513 sq. miles, and 1,638,546 inhabitants. The present Area, exclusive of Alsace and the ceded part of Lorraine, is 203,839 sq. miles. Pop. 36,428,548. Cap. Paris.
- b. Chief Bays and Straits.—Straits of Dover, English Channel, Bay of St. Malo, Bay of Biscay (Goife de Gascoigne), Gulf of Lions * (Golfe du Lion).
- c. Chief Islands.—Ushant, Belle Isle, Noirmoutier, Rhè, Oleron, Hieres, Corsica.
 - d. Capes.—Gris-Nez (gree-nā), La Hogue, Barfleurs, Raz Point.
- 245a. Surface.—The greater part of the N., the N.E., and Centre of France consists of one extended and rather elevated Plais, rising in some parts from 1,200 ft. to 1,900 ft., and in the North, interspersed with hills. South of the mouth of the Garonne is a great extent of country called the Landes, which is covered with numerous marshes, lagoons, and shifting sands, and which the inhabitants traverse on stilts. These plains have recently been extensively planted with pines, which serve to bind the sand. The departments of Upper Vienne and Corrèze afford many rich and beautiful landscapes; while the Pyrenees to the S., and the Alps to the S.E., contain many rugged and romantic regions. Since the Revolution of 1789 the Forests have been greatly diminished, though they still occupy a large extent of country; the principal are those of Ardennes, Orleans, Fontainebleau and Compiegne.
- b. The Mountains are the Alps (6,000 to 14,000 ft.); the Pyrenees (7,000 to 10,000 ft.); the Cevennes (sā-venn); Auvergne (ō-vāīrn), the highest of which are Mont D'Or, Cantal, and Puy-de-Dôme (pwee); the Jura; and the Vosges (vozsh) Mountains.
- c. Rivers.—France has numerous rivers, many of which are connected by means of Canals. The principal are Seine (sāne), Loire (lwâr), Garonne, Rhone, Moselle, Meuse, Scheldt (skelt, or Escaut, es-co), Somme, Marne, Saône (sōne); its tributaries, Doubs (doob), and Adour (ad-oor).
- d. The Lakes are few and small. On the S.E and S.W. there are many marshes and lagoons.
- 146a. Climate.—The Climate is in general temperate and healthy, not to be surpassed on the whole by that of any other country in Europe.
- b. In the North, the winters are sometimes rigorous, lasting more than half the year. In the South, the summers are long and warm and the sty generally serene, while the winters are of short duration. In the Centre, the temperature

^{*} So-called from its being boisterous, and not from the city Lyons, which is 100 miles inland.

is mild and more steady than in the North or South. The Annual mean Temperature of the North is 50°; of the Centre, 58°; of the South, 60°. The mean Bummer Temp. of Paris is 64°; of Nantes, 68°; of Bordeaux, 70°; of Montpellier, 75°. The mean Winter Temp. of Paris is 38°; of Nantes, 40°; of Bordeaux, 42°; of Montpellier, 44°.—The Mistral, a cold piercing wind from the N. N. W., occasionally arrests vegetation in the basin of the Rhone; while a scorching wind from the Sahara sometimes desolates the districts on the Southern coast.

- c. Bainfall.—The air is most moist and rain most frequent on the West coasts. The number of rainy days in Lat. 43° to 46° N. is about 124; st Paris, 105; on the Mediterranean, 66; on the Atlantic, 152; in the Interior, 147. The amount of Rainfall in the S. is 33 inches; in the W. 24 ins.; in the N. 23 ins.; in Bretagne, about 40 ins.
- 147a. Soil, &c.—The soil is very various. Some districts in the South-West are barren. The soil of Bretagne, Loire, Loiret, Gascony, and along the Bay of Biscay is only inferior; but the North, Centre, East, and South contain large tracts of great fertility. The pasturage, in general, is not equal to that of England. On the whole, France contains a great amount of productive land.
- b. The Mineral riches of France are considerable. The principal are iron, which is abundant, copper, lead, silver, antimony, sulphur, coal (nr. St. Etienne and in the basin of the Upper Loire), salt, marble, granite, &c.
 - c. Among wild Animals are the bear, lynx, wolf, wild boar, fox, hare, &c.
- Revolution of 1789 France was divided into 35 Provinces, many of which had originally been distinct states or feudal lordships. These old divisions have still an historical interest; but the modern division of the country is, since the cession of Alsace and part of Lorraine to Germany, into 86 Departments, but before that cession into 89. These departments are mostly named from the rivers which bound or water them.
- b. The Departments are subdivided into 373 Arrondissements, 2,988 Cantons, and 37,510 Communes or Parishes. Each department is governed by a Prefect; each arrond, by a Sub-prefect; and each commune by a Mayor or Bailiff. France, before the revolution of 1870, was also divided into 6 Military Arrondissements, each commanded by a Field-Marshal. In 1860 the Duchy of Savoy and the County of Nice were ceded by Sardinia and annexed to France, and now form three Departments. By the war, however, with Prussia in 1870-71, France has been compelled to cede to Germany Alsace, except Belfort, which contains two Departments, and part of Lorraine containing the dep. of the Moselle, including Mets and Thionville. The territory ceded contains 5,513 sq. m., and 1,538,546 inhabs.

Old Provinces,	Departments.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns, Pop. in Thousands.
1. French Flanders 2. Artois 2. Picardy 4. Normandy 5	Nord Pas de Calais Somme Lower Seine Eure Calvados Manche Orne	2,261 2,551 2,379 2,329 2,518 2,133 2,291 2,354	Lille, 155; Douay, 17; Cambrai, 22; Dunkirk, 33; Roubaix, 65; Valencieunes, 19; Tourcoing, 38, Arras, 24; St. Omer, 18; Caisis, 28; Boulogne, 40. Anieus, 61; Abbeville, 21. Rouen, 100; Dieppe, 30; Havre, 75; Elboeuf, 20. Evreux, 13; Louviers, 9. Caen, 41; Bayeux, 9; Honfieur, 9. St. Lô, 8; Cherbourg, 37; Granville, 17. Alençon, 14; Fiers, 10.

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Old Provinces.	Departments.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns. Pop. in Thousands.
	Aisne	2,839	{ Laon, 10; Soissons, 10; St. Quen- tin, 30.
	Oise Seine and Oise	2,261	Beauvais, 15; Complègne, 12.
5. Isle of France . <	Seine	2,163 183	Sevres, 6.
	Seine and Marne	2,215	\ 17. Meiun, 11; Fontainebleau, 11;
. }	Ardennes	3,021	Mézieres, 5 ; Sedan, 15; Rethel, 7.
6. Champagne .	Marne Aube	8,159	(10.
{	Upper Marne	2,317 2,401	Troyes, 34. Chaumont, 7; Langres, 10.
7. Lorraine (the part not ceded)	Meuse	2,404	
*Part of Meurthe <	*Meurthe	2,352	Nancy, 49; Luneville, 15; Toul, 7.
	Vosges	2,347	
8. Franche-Comté	Upper Saône Doubs	2,062 2,018	
(Jura	1,928	Lons-le-Saulnier, 9 ; Dôle, 10.
ſ	Yonne Côte d'Or	2,868	Auxerre, 15; Sens, 11.
9. Burgundy	Saône and Loire	3,382	
	Ain	3,302	} sur-Saône, 16.
è	Eure and Loire	2,239 2,268	Bourg, 14. Chartres, 19.
10. Orléanais }	Loiret	2,614	Orléans, 50.
	Loire and Cher Mayenne	2,452 1,996	Blois, 20 ; Vendôme, 9. Laval, 28 ; Mayenne, 10.
11. Maine	Sarthe	2,396	Le Mans, 37.
ſ	Ille and Vilaine Côtes du Nord	2,597 2,658	Rennes, 45; St. Malo, 9. St. Brieuc, 15: St. Dinan, 8.
12. Bretagne	Finistèrre	2,595	Quimper, 11; Brest, 67; Moriaix, 14 Vannes, 14; L'Orient, 67.
	Morbihan Lower Loire	2,625	Vannes, 14; L'Orient, 67. Nantes, 113; St. Nazaire, 10.
13. Anjou	Maine and Loire	2,654 2,750	Angers, 51; Saumur, 14.
14. Toursine	Indre and Loire Cher	2,361	Tours, 41. Bourges, 28; St. Amand, 8.
15. Berri	Indre	2,779 2,624	
16. Nivernais	Nièvre Alliers	2,632	Nevers, 18.
(Rhone	2,822	(Lyone Sig. Terere 14. Villa.
18. Lyonnais }	Loire	1,077	franche, 11.
70 4	Puy-de-Dôme	1,838 3,069	
19. Auvergne	Cantal	2,217	Auriliac, 10.
(Creuse Vendée	2,150 2,588	Guéret, 3; Aubusson, 6. Napoléon-Vendée, 8.
21. Poitou }	Deux Sèvres	2,816	Niort, 20.
22. Aunis)	Vienne	2,691	(La Pachalla 10 · Pachatast sa
23. Saintonge	Lower Charente	2,635	Saintes, 10.
24. Angoumais	Charente Upper Vienne	2,294 2,130	Angoulême, 24 : Cognac, 8.
25. Limousin	Corrèze	2,265	Tulle, 12; Brives, 9.
ſ	Gironde Dordogne	3,752 3,545	Director, 103, Dibourne, 13.
00 00-1	Lot	2,012	Cahors, 13.
26. Guienne	Aveyron .	3,376	Rodez, 11; Milhau, 12; Ville-
	Tarn and Garonne	1,433	
ļ	Lot and Garonne Landes	2,020	Agen, 17: Villeneuve, 13.
27. Gascony	Gers	3,599 2,425	Mont-de-Marsan, 4. Auch, 11 ; Condome, 8.
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Upper Pyrenees	1,749	Tarbes, 14; Bagnères,
28. Béarn	Lower Pyrenees	2,943	Pau, 21; Bayonne, 25.

Old Provinces.	Departments.	Bq. Miles.	Chief Towns, Pop. in Thousands.		
29. Languedoc	Ardèche Upper Loire Luzère Gard Hérault Tarn	2,134 1,916 1,996 2,258 2,323 2,323	Le Puy, 17; Yasingeaux, 7. Mende, 6. Nimes, 57; Alais, 20, Beaucaire, a (Montpellier, 51; Besiers, 24; Cette, 22. Alby, 15; Castres, 21.		
30. Dauphiny }	Upper Garonne Aude Isère Drôme Upper Alps	2,429 2,437 8,201 2,518 2,158	Carcassone, 20; Narbonne, 16. Grenoble, 26; Vienne, 19. Valence, 18; Montelimar, 12.		
31. Provence	Lower Alps Var Mouths of Rhone Vaucluse	2,685 2,849 1,971 1,879	Digne, 6. Draguignan, 10; Toulon, 84. Marseilles, 260; Aix, 27; Arles, 25.		
Pope in 1791) 33. Roussillon	Eastern Pyrcnees	1,591	Perpignan, 23.		
a. Ceded by the Ge- noese in 1768.	Ariège Corsica Maritime Alps	1,889 8,377 1,517	Ajaccio, 4; Bastia, 12. Nice, 50; Grasse, 12; Mentone, 5.		
1860) Present Area .		2,283 1,319 203,839	L'Hopital, 4; Annecy, 11.		
The following were 1. Pt. of Lorraine . (Acquired by the	ceded by France to Moselle				
French in 1766; lost in 1871.) 2. Alsace (Wrested from Austria in 1648; lost in 1871.)	Lower Rhine Upper Rhine	2,073 1,756 1,586	,		
* Beljort in Alsace has not yet been ceded; but a small portion of Meurthe has.					

France is essentially an agricultural country, about three-fifths of the people being engaged in agricultural pursuits. Of the entire surface of the land, about one-half is considered to be arable, one-eleventh part in pasture, and one-seventeenth part in vineyards. Of late years, both the implements and mode of farming have been considerably improved.

b. The chief Products are wheat, barley, oats, maize, hemp, flax, hops, potatoes, tobacco, best-root (from which sugar is extracted), the vine and other fruits, with the mulberry, orange, fig, lemon, &c., in the South. The minute partition of property, however, which prevails in France, by which all the children of a family inherit an equal share, forms a great drawback to any extended improvements in general farming. c. All the domestic animal, particularly cattle, sheep, and poultry, are extensively reared. Butter and eggs are largely exported to England.

150c. Manufactures, &c.—Since the Peace of 1815 French manufactures have considerably increased, and are now next only to those of Great Britain in importance. The principal are those of silk, woollen, cotton, linen, lace, jewellery, watches, clocks, cutlery, cabinet work, paper, fire-arms, soap, hats, chemicals, porcelain, and brandy.

- b. The silk manufacture, which surpasses that of any other nation, both in brilliancy of colour and elegance of design, is extensively carried on at Lyons, the principal seat, Paris, Nismes, Tours, St. Etienne, &c. Woollens are chiefly manufactured at Elbœuf, Rouen, and Louviers in Normandy; Abbeville and Amiens in Picardy, and Sedan in Champagne; Shawls at Paris, Lyons, &c.; Cottons at Lyons, Rouen, Amiens, Lille, Cambray, Paris, &c.; Linens at St. Quentin, Douay, Lille, Valenciennes, Cambray, &c.; fine Lawn Cambrics, &c., at Cambray (whence the name), at Valenciennes, Dieppe, Alençon, &c.; Medal Goods at St. Etienne, &c.; Cutlery at Thiers: Firearms at Tulle, &c.; Foredain at Sevres, near Paris; Jewellery, watches, leather, gloves, &c., at Paris, &c.; Brandy at Cognac; Paper, glass, furniture, and sugar from beet-root at various places. Ship-building is extensively carried on at the various Ports.
- c. Commerce.—France, from her admirable situation, from the ingenuity and cleverness of her artisans in many employments, and from the general fertility of her soil, must always possess great inland and neighbouring trade. The principal Exports are wines (of which the most esteemed are Burgundy, Champagne, and Bordeaux), brandy, lace, stuffs, silks, paper, china, fashionable articles, furniture, glass, jewellery, books, butter, eggs, &c. The value of the Exports in 1868 to Great Britain alone was 34,584,0001. The Imports are the precious metals, lead, tin, copper, coals, iron, wool, machinery, hardware, woollens, horses, coffee, tea, cotton, indigo, &c. The total value of Imports in 1868 from Great Britain alone was 10,652,001.—d. The chief Commercial Ports are—Marseilles, Havre, Bordeaux, Nantes, La Rochelle, Dunkirk, Boulogne, Dieppe, St. Malo, Bayonne, and Cette. The chief Naval Ports are—Brest, Cherbourg, L'Orient, Rochefort, and Toulon.—e. Roads, &c. There are three kinds of Roads—national, departmental, and communal. The two former are generally well-made, very direct, and kept in axcellent repair. But, the communal roads, though much improved of late years, are still in a poor condition. The Railways are very extensive, radiating from Paris as a common centre. In 1869 they extended to 9,515 miles. Telegraphic Lines are also extensive. The Canals and navigable Rivers extend to 8,000 miles. Fisheries are established along all the coasts.
- CONDITION. 151a.—Government.—On the surrender of Napoleon 3rd to the King of Prussia, on Sept. 2, 1870, the Imperial Dynasty was deposed by a mere Parisian mob, and a Republican Form of Government decreed in its stead. This is the Fourth Revolution and the Third Republic. On August, 1871, M. Thiers was appointed President of the Republic for 3 years.
- b. Under the late Imperial Government, the following powers were recognised:

 —1. The Emperor, who was himself irresponsible, his person inviolable, and in whom the whole Executive was vested. 2. Eleven Ministers, who were appointed by the Emperor, bad each a salary of 4,000l. a year. These at first were responsible only to the Emperor, but in 1869 were made responsible to the nation, 3. A Council of State, consisting of from 40 to 50 members, were engaged in preparing measures intended to be laid before the Legislative Body. Each member received a salary of 1,000l. per annum. 4. The Legislative Body, consisting in 1869 of 282 members, elected for 6 years by universal suffrage, at the rate of one member for 35,000 electors. This body discussed, and either passed or rejected any measure brought before it by the Council of State, whether relating to revenue, expenditure, or general administration. Each member received an allowance of 100l. per month during the Session. 5. A Senate or 'Moderating Power,' limited to 150 members, were appointed for life by the Emperor. The duty of this body was to oppose the passing of any law contrary to the Constitution, religion, public liberty, &c. Each Senator received a Salary to 1,200l. per annum. In addition to the above-mentioned, the Profects, Sub-prefects, and Mayors of Communes throughout the country were appointed by the Government. each of whom received a salary.
- c. History of the late Imperial Constitution.—In 1815 the Bourbons were restored to the throne of France in the person of Louis 18th. In 1830, a Revolution took place, when Charles 10th, who had succeeded his brother Louis 18th, was obliged to abdicate, and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, was made King. In 1848, another Revolution displaced Louis Philippe, and rendered France once more a Republic. On Dec. 20, 1848, Prince Louis Napoleon, nephew of Napoleon 1st, was made President of the Republic. On Dec. 2, 1851, under pretext of saving

the country, he effected his 'Coup & Etat,' by which he dissolved the Legislative Assembly, establi-hed universal suffrage by a plebiscite or decree of the people, and was authorised to form a Constitution, which was accordingly done and promigrated on Jan. 15, 1852. On Dec. 2, 1852, in accordance with a decree of the Senate and a Plebiscite carried by 7.839,552 votes against 254,401, the name of the government was changed; the Empire was re-established, and Lonis Napoleon Bonaparte became Emperor of the French, under the title of Napoleon 3rd. The throne was declared hereditary in the legitimate make descendants of the Emperor; failing which, the succession rested in Prince Jerome Napoleon Bonaparte, and his direct legitimate descendants in the male line in the order of nrimogeniture. line in the order of primogeniture.

- d. The Revenue is derived both from direct and indirect taxation. a. The Revenue is derived both from direct and indirect faxation. The Revenue in 1869 was \$5,148,0001, the Expenditure was \$5,138,0001, the Public Debt was 53,288,0001, while in 1851 it was only 214,000,0001. e. Both the Army and Navy are raised by Conscription; though substitution in the army is permitted at the cost of 1001. per man, and encouragement is given to voluntary recruits. The Army in 1869, amounted to 384,280 regulars, 198,546 reserve, 381,728 National Garde Mobile—total 1,028,980 men. The Navy was manned by 74,000 sailors.
- f. The Poor.—The country people are in general poor, arising principally from the minute subdivision of the land, which deprives them of the means of improvement or the desire of entering into other employments than those in which they have been brought up. They earn little and can therefore only spend little.

 Mendicancy, notwithstanding many efforts to suppress it, is very frequent in France. There are many charitable institutions, but no compulsory assessment.
- 152a. Religion.—In France, there is properly speaking no established Religion. The majority of the people are nominally Roman Catholics; but other religionists are tolerated under certain restrictions. The Protestants, who reside chiefly in Alsace and Languedoc, number about 2,000,000; of these two-thirds are Calvinists, and the remainder Lutherans, Methodists, &c. The Jews number about 80,000. Both Catholic and Protestant clergymen are paid by the State, according to their rank.
- b. There are 17 Catholic Archbishops and 67 Bishops. The Catholic clergy are chiefly educated in seminaries established for the express purpose of clerical instruction. Stratowary, in Alsace, now belonging to Prussia, is the chief place of instruction for the clergy of the Lutheran church; Montauban in Guienne for those of the Calvinistic or Reformed Church.
- 153a. Education, &c.—Education is entirely under the control of the Government. Every commune is obliged to support at least one primary school, in which reading, writing, the first rules of arithmetic, the outlines of geography, history, and drawing are taught, and to the poorest pupils gratuitously. There are also in Paris and other places Normal Schools for the education of primary teachers. Secondary instruction is supplied by commercial colleges and private academies, under the superintendence of the university.
- b. For higher Instruction, there are 26 National Academies, each governed by 6. For nigher Interaction, there are 20 National Academies, each governed by a Rector and two Inspectors, and comprising several faculties. The Rectors of these 26 academies, with 12 Inspectors-General, and the deans and professors of faculties, form what is termed the University of France, of which the Minister of Public Instruction may be considered the Grand Master. c. Language.—The French Language, a dialect of the Latin, is the common language of all the educated classes, and is understood throughout France. There is, however, in enucated classes, and is interacted throughout France. There is, nowever, are many of the departments, a great variety of dislects, called Patois, which are spoken by the lower classes. German is spoken in Alsace and part of Lortaine, the inhabitants of which are, by the treaty of Feb. 1871, after the lapse of nearly two centuries, re-united to their countrymen. Flemish is spoken on the borders of Belgium: Bas-Breion in Bretagne; Basque in the Lower Pyrenees; and Patien-in Consics. J. In Literature and General Science, France can begin

of many eminent men. The best French Authors are distinguished for parsoicuity, good sense, and attachment to classical mode s.

- 154. People, Manners, &c .- Since the Revolution of 1789, the manners of the French have undergone a great alteration. Instead of the high-bred polish which formerly characterised the French, there has been substituted a strong republican spirit, which evinces itself in a roughness which is frequently offensive. But still, among the peasantry and the leading class in the provinces, this degeneracy is not so perceptible. Upon the whole, the French may be characterised as a gay, lively, volatile, yet generous people, more influenced by pression and sentiment than by sedate judgment (as is manifested in the repeated revolutions), by the ideas of the moment without regard to any fixed principles of morality and virtue; and frequently exhibiting, amidst the most temperate habits in ordinary life, a vehemence at which general observers are surprised and disgusted. Before the recent war, however, between France and Prussis, the spirit of moral improvement had for 20 years been gaining strength, not only in Paris, but throughout France. Insurances against the casualties of life, Savings Banks, and other useful and provident institutions had made great progress.—The Towns in France, except in the modern parts. are generally ill-built, the streets narrow and irregular, the drainage and pavement very defective, and the houses very high, of which each storey is generally a separate dwelling.
- 155. Foreign Possessions.—1. In Asia—Pondicherry, Caricall. and Yanaon, on the E. cost of Hindostan; Mahe on the West coast; Chandernagore, 17 m. N. of Calcutta; Saigon and other places in Cochin China.
- Africa-Algeria, Senegal, Goree, Isle of Bourbon or Reunion; Mayotte, one of the Comoro group; portions of Madagascar; St. Marie off the coast of Madagascar; and Assinie on the West of the Gold coast.
- 3. In America-the islands of Martinique, Guadaloupe, Marie Galante, Desirade, Saintes (sdnt), pt. of St. Martin, St. Pierre and Miguelon near Newfoundland; and pt. of Guyana in S. America.
 - 4. In the Pacific Ocean-the Marquesas, Tahiti, and New Caledonia.

LESSON 77.—156a. Names of Provs. and Departments, &c., of difficult Pronunciation.

Aisne, dne Allier, al-le-t Artois, art-wah. Aube, obe. Aunis, ō-nē. Aude, ode. Aveyron, ah-va-ron. Béarn, ba-ar. Bretagne, breh-tahn Ohampagne, shampan.
Dauphinė, do-fend.
Doubs, doobz.
Franche-Comté, fransh-contd.

Olerou, ol-rong. Gard, gar.

Gers, shair. Herault, hā-rō. Hières, hē-āir, islas. Ille, col. Landes, land. Languedoc, lang-ge-dok. Limousin, le-moo-san. Loir, hoar. Meurte, mart. Nièvre, no-aivr. Ois, waz.

Orleanais, or-lā-ān-ā. Puy-de-Dôme, pwer-dek-dōme Rhè, rd. Rousillon, roo-seel-you. Saône, sone. Saintonge, san-tongh. Barthe, sart. Beine, sane. Bevres Deux, saivr-dal. Ushant, ush aung. Vancluse, vo-kluse Vosges, pozsk. Yonne, you.

b. Words occurring in French Maps :-

Bas, basses, low: belle, beautiful; bouches, mouths; côtes, hills: de, of; du, of the; deux, two; et, and; finis, end; haut or hautes, high; inferioure, lower; nord, worth; orientales, eastern; terre; land.

157. CHIEF TOWNS AND HISTORICAL LOCALITIES—the pop. of towns in thousands

Aix (aix), in Provence, hot springs and grt. trade, p. 27.

Agincourt (adjunkth), a vil. in Artois,

Agincours (adjin-ret, a vii. In Afols, fam, for a vict. by Henry 5th of England over the French, Oct. 25, 1415.

Ajacto (a-jas e-o), cap. of Corsica, hpl. of Rapoleon 1st, p. 12.

Al'ais (al-d. anc. Alesia), in Languedec,

iron works, p. 20.

Abbe-ville, in Picardy, manf. of cottons, linens, hosiery, &c. p. 20.

Albi or Alby, in Languedoc, whence the linens, hosiery, &c. p. 20. Alengon (a-lan-son), in Normandy, mus-

line, cottons, &c., p. 16.
Amiens (amh s-ong), in Picardy, cottons,

woollens, &c., p. 58.
Angers (ang sha), in Anjou, linens, woollen stuffs, &c. p. 51.

Angouiême (idme), in Angoumair, paper, p. 24.

Aries (arl, anc. Arelate), in Provence,

once the cap, of the Gauls; here a cel. council was held in A.D. 314, at which three Brit. Bishops were pres. p. 25. Arras (arrah), in Artois, cel. for tapestry,

called arras, p. 25.

Autun (o-toung, anc. Bibracte), in Burgundy, with many Roman remains, p. 11. Auxerre (o-sare), in Burgundy, fam. for vineyards, near, p. 15.

Avignon (a-vin-yong), once the resid of the Popes, from 1809 to 1377 (wrested from the Papai power in 1791), p. 36. Bagneres (ban-yair), in Guienne, mineral

springs, p. 8. Bar-le-duc (bar-leh-dük), in Lorraine, nr. it

are many vineyards, p. 40. Bayonns (bd-youn'), in Béarn, a fortified scaport ; the bayonet was invented here

in 1679, p. 25. Beauvais (bo-vay), in Isle of France, fam.

for its tapestry, p. 14.
Besangon (ba-saung-son, anc. Vesontio), in Franche-Comté, watches jewellery, p. 46. Besieres (beszelfe), in Languedoc, sliks, gloves, &c., p. 24. Blois (blo-ah), in Orleannais, with a cel.

CRS. p. 20.

Bordeaux (bor-do), in Guienne, grt. ex-porter of wines, brandles, fruits, &c.,

Bonlogne (boo-lone), in Artois, a seaport Boulogne (boo-lone), in Artois, a seaport much frequented by the Euglish, p. 36.
Bourges (boorza, anc. Avaricum), in Berri, cloth, cutlery, p. 28.
Brest, in Bretagne, chief naval station of Franco on the Atlantic, p. 67.
Brieur, St. (bre-fla), in Bretagne, trade in butter, cider, &c. p. 15.
Cam (kakay), in Normandy, lace, crape, cutlery; burialplace of William the Choop. P. 45.

cutlery; burialplace of Conq. p. 43.

Colais (ie), in Artols, opp. Dover, a strong scaport, taken by the English under Edward 3rd in 1347, and recovered by maked ord in 1347, and recovered by the French in 1558, p. 13. Cambray, in French Flanders, manf. of cambrics, p. 22.

Carcassonne (sone) in Lanquedoc, cloth,

p. 20. Cette (sett), in Languedoc, a strong seaport, p. 23.

Chalons-sur-Marne (sha-long), in Cham-pagne, woollens, linens, &c. p. 16.

Chainis-sur-Saône (cône). In Burgundy, glass, watches, &c. p. 16. Chamberry, cap. of auc. duchy of Savoy, ceded by Sardinia to France in 1860,

p. 19.

Chamouny (sha-moone), a cel, valley in Savoy, at ft. of Mont Blanc, Chartr s (shartr), in Orleannais, hosiery,

&c., p. 19. Chateauroux (shat-o'-roo), in Berri, weo!-

lens, p. 16. Chatellerault (*croo*), in Poltou, arms,

cutlery, p. 14. Cherbourg (sher-boorg), in Normandy, a

great nava station, p. 41.
Clermont (clair mung), in Auvergne, bpl.
of Pascal, grt. trade; here Peter the
hermit, in 1095 A.D., proclaimed the

First crusade. Cognac (köne-yak), in Angoumais, grt. trade in transfer, p. 8.

*Col'mar, in Alsace, cottons, p. 22, now ceded to Prussia.

Corsics, a large island in the Mediterranean, 120 m. by 45 m., area, 3,377 sq. m., pop. 252,000.

Cressy, in Picardy, mem. for a vict, by Edward 3rd over the French in 1346. Denis, St., nr. Paris, cel. for its abbey, the burial place of the French kings, p. 22. Dieppe (des-ep), in Normandy, a senport,

Dion (dee-ghong), in Burgundy, a university academy; manf. of woollens, linens, &c., p. 37.
Dousy (doo-gy), in French Flanders, a univers. academy, cannon foundry, p.

Dunkirk, in French Flanders, a seaport, sold by Charles 2nd of England in 1664 to Louis 14th of France for 200,0001, p. 22.

LESSON 78.

Elhœuf (sl-b@f), in Normandy, chief seat of the woolien manf. p. 20.

Ettenne (st-e-snn'), in Lyonnais, arms,

hardware, p. 92.

hardware, p. 92.

Foix (faods), once the cap, of Comté de
Foix, iron forges, p. 5.

Fontainebleau (blo), in Ile de France, the
favourite resid, of Napoleou 1st, p. 12. Pranche-Comté, or free country, an old prov. forming that part of old Bur-gundy which enjoyed special privi-

Germain, St. (jer-main), 10 m. from Paris,

with a cel. cas., p 15. Grenüble, in Dauphine, manf. of gloves, has a univers. acad. p. 27. Havre (hdv-er), in Normandy, a scaport,

p. 74.

Ivry, in dep. of Eure, cel. for the vict. of Henry 4th of France over the Duke of Mayenne in 1590.

Mayenne in 1590.
Lilie or Lisle (ket), in French Flanders, a strong city, manf. of cloths, cottons, glovres, p. 131.
Limoges, (16-462h), in Limonsin, woollens, porcelain, p. 51.
Urrent (16-7e-6xg), in Bretagne, a strong

sesport, p. 68.

Louviers (loo-ve-d), in Normandy, fine wooliens, p. 10. Luneville (12-ne-vil), in Lorraine, a mili-

tary school, p. 15. Lyons (le ong or it-ons), in Lyonusis, anc. Lyons (4e org) or 4c-ons), in Lyonusia, anc. Lugdanum, the second city in France, once the cap, of Roman Gaul, clif, seat of the silk mant, also of cottons, chemicals, &c. p. 318. Maio, St. (md-lo), in Bretague, a scaport and hathing place, p. 9. Mans (massrap), in Maine, coarse linens,

p. 37.

Marseilles (mar-sale, anc. Massilia), in

Provence, large seaport, p. 250.

Meaux (mo), in dep. Seine and Marne;
here the doctrines of the Reformers were first taught in France in 1521,

*Metz (mets) in Lorraine (anc. Divoda-"Metz (mets) in Lorraine (airc. Disodis-rum), a stronely fortified town, with grt. trade; here Marshal Bazaine, with an army of 173.000 men, capitulated to the Prussians on Oct. 26, 1870. It now beimgs to Germany, p. 58. Monraco, nr. Nice, once the cap, of a small failian principality, purchased by small failian principality, purchased by

the French in 1861, p. 2.

Montauban (mong-to-baung), in Guienne, a Prot. University, p. 27.

Mont-de-Marsan (mong-dah-mar-sanng), in Gascony, nineral and warm baths, p. 4. Montpellier (pel-t-d), in Languedoc, a grt. resort of invalids on account of its

warm climate, p. 51.
Moulins (mou-long), in Bourbonnais, cut-iery, silks, woollens, p. 17.
Mulhausen (mule-hoors), in Alsace, cot-

tons, &c. p. 45.

Nancy (naung-se), in Lorraine, an elegant city, p. 49. Nantes (nangt, anc. Namnetes), in Bre-

tagne, a scaport with grt. trade; here Henry 4th of France published, in 1598, the Micto of Nantas, which secured to the Huguenote the free exercise of their religion. The Revocation of this edict by Louis 14th in 1685 caused numbers of his most intelligent and industrious subjects to emigrate to England and other countries, p. 113.

Narbonne (nar-bonn, anc. Narbo), in Lan-guedoc, once the cap. of Roman Southern Gaul, called Narbononsis, p. 16. Nevers (neh-vāre), in Nevernais, porce-

lain, p. 18.

Nice (neece), S. of France, with a mild climate, ceded by Sardinia to France in 1860, p. 44

Nismes or Nimes (noom, ano. Nomausus), in Languedoc, manf. of silks, p. 57. Omer, St. (o-mair), in Artois, a strong

town, p. 22.

town, p. 22.

Orieans, in Orieannais, cel. for the slege sustained by the inhabs, against the English in 1428, under Joan of Are; captured by the Prussians Oct. 11, 1870, p. 50.

Pants (anc. Parisir), in Isle of France, the captual of France, a very large and beautiful city; the head-quarters of the University of France, and of numerous learned societies. Its manufactures are numerous. It was invested by the are numerous. It was invested by the Prussians Sept. 19, 1870; capitulated Jan. 29, 1871; and, since their departure was, for some time, the disgraceful scene of anarchy and bloodshed, p. 1,727.

Pau (p0), in Béarn, with fine climate, bpl. of Henry 4th of France, and of Gen. Bernadotte, afterwards King of

Sweden, p. 21.
Perpignan (per-peen-yang), in Roussillon, a strong town, p. 28.

Poit'lers (poi-teers or prot-te-d), in Poitou, cel. for a vict, by Edw. the Black Prince in 1356, p. 30. Pur Le (pues), in Languedoc, pleasantly

situated, p. 17. Quentin (kakng-tang), in Isle of France.

cottons, p. 30. Quimper (kahm-pāre), in Bretagne, hats, porcelain, p. 45.

Rennes (renn), in Bretagne, with a Vini-

Rennes (renn), in Decompany, went a vera Acad, p. 48.
Rheims (renns, and, Derocorderum of the Ehemi, in Champagne, the ecclesiastical cap of France, where the Kings of France were crowned; occupied by the Pressions Rend. 8, 1870, p. 58. Prussians Sept. 5, 1870, p. 55. Rochefort (rösk-faur), in Aunis, the third

naval station, p. 30.
Rochelle (roshell), in Aunis, a strong scaport; in the religious wars, it was a stronghold of the Protestants, p. 18.

stronghold of the Protestanta, p. 18.
Rouen (roo-ong, ane. Rotom-agas of the
Vellocasses), the old cap. of Normandy,
a large commercial city; William the
Conq. died here in AB, p. 102;
Saintes (songt), in Saintonge, grt. trade
in brandy, p. 10.
Sedan, in Chianpagne, fine woollens; here
the Emperor Napoleon 3rd and Marshall
MacMahon with an army of 70 cm men.

the Emperor Napoleon 3rd and margant MacMahon with an army of 70,000 men, surrendered as prisoners of war to the Prussians, Sept. 2, 1870, p. 18. Soissons (ewi-song, anc. Novindamum,), in Isle of France, unce the cap, of Chorie; captured by the Prussians Oct. 18, 1870,

p. 10.

p. 10.

Strashourg, in Alexce, seat of a Prot. Univers., cannon foundry, cottons, woollens, silks, &c.; capituisted to the Prussians after a brave defence, Oct. 6, 1870. Strashourg was wrested from Germany in 1688, and by the treaty of Feh. 1871, again belongs to it, p. 82.

Thiers (te-str), in Auvergne, custery, &c.,

p. 16.

Toulon (anc. Telo-Martius), in Provener, the chief naval station on the Mediter-

ranean, p. 84. Toulouse (too-loss, anc. Tolisea), in Lan-guedoc, a Univers. Acad, a cel. city in the middle ages; scene of Wellington's vict. over Soult in 1814; manf. of silks, woollens, &c. p. 112. Tourcoing (toor-co-en), in French Flan-

ders, cottons, p. 83.

ders, cottons, p. 33.

Tours (top, anc. Guasaroddnum), in Touraine, silks, woollens; the temporary seat of the French government during the war with Prussia in 1870-1, p. 61.

Troyes (tro-ah), in Champagne, hosiery, cotton, &c. p. 34.

Valence (sed-ausaga), in Dauphiné, surrounded by orchards, p. 18.

Valencienes (sed-fausaga-se-on), in French Flanders, cel. for its lace, cambries, &c. p. 24.

Er. p. 24. [p. 8. Vendée Napoléon (wanng-dd), in Potton, Versailles (ver-sails), in Isle of France, nr. Paris; the former royal palace is now nr. rans; the former royal pance is now turned into a museum; here the King of Prussia fixed his head-quarters during the war of 1870-1, p. 48. Vienne (re-ens), in Dauphinè, many anc. remains, p. 19.

LESSON 79.—HISTORY. 158s. IN THE TIME OF THE ROMANS, France, then called Gallia Transalpina (the people, Galli, Gauls), was occupied by Cellic, and partly by German tribes who were conquered by the Romans. On the decline of the Roman power, the country was invaded on the N. by the Salic Franks, or free people, a German tribe; on the E. by the Burgundians; and on the S. by the Visigotts, or Western Goths. By these invasions, the aborigines were either expelled or reduced to seridom.

b. THE FIRST BACE OF FRANKISH KINGS, 420 A.D. to 751 A.D., was commenced in A.D. 420, by Pharamond, the chief of the Salic Franks, and the first

of the race called Merovingian, from Merovius, the third Frankish king. This race produced 21 kings to France, and ended with Childeric 3rd, in 751 a.D. In 507, Clovis, a descendant of Pharamond, extended his dominions by the conquest of the Visigoths in the South and West. The succeeding monarchs of this race became indolent and effeminate, gradually deputing their authority to the principal officer of their domestics, called Major Domits, or Mayor of the Palace. Under princes of unripe years or of feeble character, the Mayors of Passace. Under princes or unripe years or or teems character, the majors or the Palace, if clever and ambitious men, would easily usurp all the powers of the state. Pepis & Heristal, one of these mayors, by his abilities became the real master of the sovereignty, and at his death was succeeded by his son, Charles Martel in 714, as Mayor of the Palace. Charles Martel supported the dignity of the Frankish throne by crushing various rebellions, and utterly defeating in 782 near Tours the Saracess, who had invaded the South of France, and expelling them from the kingdom.

c. The Second of Carlovingian Race of Kings, 752 to 986.—At the death of Charles Martel in 751, his son *Pepin-le-bref* (the short), succeeded his father as Mayor of the Falsee, and shortly after, Childeric Srd, the last descendant of as mayor or the raises, and shortly after, Childeric 3rd, the last descendant of Clovis, having been deposed by the suffrages of the people, Pepin was declared King in 752. He was the first of the Carlovingian Kings. By imprudently dividing the provinces among his principal nobility with the exercise of all but sovereign power, he laid the foundation of the subsequent Great Fiels, the cause of so much future contention. At the death of Pepin in 788, his dominions were divided between his two sons; but one dying shortly after, Charles, the survivor, reunited the whole of his father's dominions. Charles, deserved called CHARLEMAGEN (Charles the Great), creatly extended bits dominions. survivor, remnieu the whole of his lather's dominions. Charlet, deservedly called CHARLEMAGNE (Charles the Great), greatly extended his dominions. By conquering the greater part of Italy, the North of Spain, and nearly all Germany, his empire embraced all France, Spain to the Ebro, Italy to Naples, and nearly the whole of Germany. Shortly after, in 800, he was crowned at Rome Emperor of the West. He established a regular government throughout his dominions, compiled a code of laws, and encouraged learning, manufactures, and commerce. He was indefatigable in the discharge of his duties reconsery. and commerce. He was indefatigable in the discharge of his duties, regular in the distribution of his time, and temperate in his personal habits. At his death in 814, his son Louis succeeded to the throne. The descendants of Charlemagne, however, were unequal to sustain the royal authority or curb the frequent incursions of the Normans. Louis 5th, the last of this dynasty, died in 988. Louis's actual territory had been so diminished as to be confined to the single town Laon, and the adjacent territory.

d. THE THIRD OR CAPETIAN RACE OF KINGS, 987-1328.—During the whole of the tenth century, France was exhausted by anarchy and tyranny. Each province had its sovereign, styled Duke or Count. All these reigned as independent sovereigns in their own territories, and were frequently at war with each other, while the common people were exposed to great hardships and slavery. These provincial chiefs recognised, indeed, a sort of hereditary Superior, upon whom they conferred the title of King; but the King was without authority, money, or arms, unless his own dominions supplied the means; and was thus at the mercy of his powerful but nominal Vassals.

987-996 A.D.—On the death of Louis 5th, HUGH CAPET, Count of Paris (whose

father, Hugues or Hugh the Great, had successfully defended Paris against the attacks of the Normans), usurped the throne, and was crowned at Rheims in 967. His first acts were—to secure the succession in his family by the coronation of his son Robert at Orleans, to unite to the Royal Domains the pronistion of his son Mobert at Vriesns, to unite to the Royal Domains the pro-vinces of Re de France and Orleanaut, which he had hitherto held as a vassal, and to declare those to be hereditary which were held by other Feudatories, amounting in number to nearly 40. Of these, the principal were the dukes Normandy, Burgundy, Aquitaine, and Bretagne; the counts of Champagne, Vermandots in Picardy, Flanders, Anjou, Pottou, and Toulouse. The provinces of Lorraine, Burgundy beyond Jura, and Provence, were subject to the Em-

perors of Germany. 96-1061. BOBERT, son of Hugh, succeeded, and united to the Royal Domain

the Ducky of Burgundy.

1051-1060, HESEY 1st, son of Robert, was compelled to detach Burgundy from
the crown and cede it to his brother, in whose family it continued for 300

1060-1106. PHILIP 1st, son of Henry, succeeded. In his reign, William, Duke of Normandy, conquered England in 1066, and the First Crusade comenced in 1066. At this time, FEUDALISM was at the height of its tyranny. The wars between the Lords were frequent and ferocious; and the burdens imposed on the people arbitrary and oppressive. The country people were called villeins, the town people, bourgeois.

1108-1137. Louis 6th, the Lusty, son of Philip 1st, succeeded, and strengthened

the Royal Power in his own dominions.

1137-1180. Louis 7th, the Young, carried on his father's policy in strengthen-1137-1180. LOUIS ITA, the Found, carried on his father's policy in strengthening the Royal Power. In 1147, he engaged in the Second Crusade; and, on his return, divorced his wife Eleanor, heiress of Guienne, &c. She afterwards, in 1149, married Henry 2nd of England, by which Henry added to Normandy the provinces of Anjou, Maine, Touraine, Pottou, Guienne, Gascomy, Limousin, Angoumais, and others. He thus possessed more in France than the King himself.

1180-1223. PHILIP 2nd, Augustus, an able but unscrupulous prince, consolidated the Royal Power by substituting Legal Forms for individual caprice, and uniting to the crown the great fiefs of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, which he had wrested from King John of England. To these he added Vermandois, part of Picardy, and part of Auvergne in the South of France. He also carried on a cruel persecution of the peaceable and industrious ALBIGENSES, and weakened the power of the Count of Toulouse, their legitimate sovereign and natural protector.

1223-1226. Louis 8th, surnamed 'The Lion,' who succeeded, conquered Poitou, and continued the Crusade against the Albigenses. He also established

the Inquisition at Toulouse.

1226-1270. Louis 9th, called St. Louis, on account of his piety, son of Louis 8th, ascended the throne at the age of 15, under the guardianship of his mother. In 1248, he embarked for Palestine on a Crusade, at the head of 50,000 men, took Damietta in Egypt, and returned in 1254. He added Toulouse and Perche, in Maine, to the Royal Domains; undertook a second crusade against

reference, in Arame, to the royal bonnains; undergood a second crusade against the Saraceans in Africa, and died at the siege of Tunis in 1270.

1270-1285. PHILIP 3rd, surnamed 'The Bold,' son of St. Louis, succeeded.

1285-1314. PHILIP 4th, the Fair, son of Philip 3rd, cruelly abolished the order of the Templars and seized on their estates. He reduced the Flemings; violently appropriated several of the Fiefs of the Nobles, and was the first that assembled the STATES-GENERAL, or representatives of the Nobility, Clergy, and Commons.

1314-1316. Louis 10th, called le Hutin, the Headstrong, son of Philip 4th, succeeded, and after a short reign of two years was succeeded by his posthumous son John, who lived only a few days. The condition of the country at this time was wretched.

1316-1322. PHILIP 5th, called 'the Long,' from his stature, the second son of Philip 4th, succeeded, in preference to the daughter and heiress of his elder brother Louis 10th. This succession was in accordance with the Salio LAW

1322-1328. CHARLES 4th, the Handsome, brother of Philip 5th, succeeded, and died in 1928, without leaving a son. In Charles 4th, the direct line of the

Capetian Kings ended.

As the Salic Law (derived from the Salians, a Frankish Tribe), which excluded the succession of females to the throne of France, was in operation, when a failure of male heirs occurred in the direct line, the next male heir in the oldest branch was appointed to the throne. By this means, several branches of the Capetian Dynasty succeeded. On the death of Charles 4th, therefore, in 1328, without leaving a son, the House of Valois succeeded in the person of Philip 6th.

LESSON 80.-160. HOUSE OF VALOIS, 1328-1589.

1328-1350. PHILIP 6th, OF VALOIS, grandson of Philip 3rd, by his third son Charles of Valois, succeeded on the death of Charles 4th. The reigns of this and the two succeeding sovereigns were much disturbed by the wars with the English under Edward 3rd, and his son Edward the Black Prince. Edward 3rd claimed the throne of France in right of his mother, which was contrary to the Salie Law. The French were defeated in the naval battle of Stays in

1340, and in the battles of Creey, 1346, and Poitiers in 1356.

1350-1364. JOHN 2nd, the Good, son of Philip 6th, succeeded. Having been taken prisoner at the battle of Poitiers, he was taken to London, but allowed to visit France in order to raise his ransom. Being unable to raise the sum, he honourably returned to London, and died a prisoner in the Savoy, April; 1364.

1364-1380. CHARLES 5th, the Wise, son of John 2nd, succeeded. By judicious

exertions and skilful management he was enabled ultimately to re-establish order in the state.

1380-1423. CHARLES 6th, the Maniac; succeeded. This reign was one of the most disastrous in France; the king frequently lost his reason; Henry 5th of England invaded France, and gained the battle of Agincourt. Two hostile factions raged within—the Armagnacs (followers of the Count of Armagnac and upholders of the King of France), and the Burgundians (followers of the Duke of Burgundy and favourers of the English interest). After the battle of Agincourt, the power of Henry 5th became so great that he was declared heir to the throne on the death of Charles. Henry, however, having died a few days before Charles, his son, Henry 6th, was crowned king of France under the guardianship of his uncle John Duke of Bedford.

1422-1461. CHARLES 7th, the Victorious, succeeded. At first, he reigned over only a small part of France; but, on the death of the Duke of Bedford, he gradually recovered the remainder of his dominions, and expelled the English from every quarter except from Calais. In this reign, the Duke of Burgundy, descended from a younger son of John 2nd, acquired extensive territory and

power. Joan of Are, an enthusiastic country girl, rendered essential service to her king by inspiriting the French against the English.

1461-1483. Lous 11th, son of Cnarles 'th, a crafty and intriguing prince, greatly weakened the Feudal System; and, on the death of Charles Duke of Burgundy, selzed on part of his poss-ssions. The Royal Domain thus became very extensive, though portions of Picardy, Gascony, Limousin, &c. were not included.

1483-1498. CHARLES 8th, the Amiable, son of Louis 11th, succeeded; and, by marrying Anne of Bretagne, consolidated nearly the whole of France in one Kingdom, and put an end to the Feudal System. As Charles 8th died without children, in him ended the direct succession of the House of Valois.

HOUSE OF VALOIS-ORLEANS, 1498-1515. LOUIS 12th, the Duke of Orleans, descended from a younger son of Charles 5th, obtained the crown on the death of Charles 8th. He carried on an unsuccessful war in Italy, but his character and manners endeared him to his people. At his death he left only a daughter.

HOUSE OF VALOIS-ANGOULEME, 1515-1589. 1515-1547.—FRANCIS 1st, Count of Angoulème, the next male heir, as great grandson of Charles 5th, succeeded to the crown on the death of Louis 12th. He had previously married the only saughter of Louis. Francis liberally patronised both literature and commerce. He defeated the Swiss at Marigmano in 1515; met Henry 8th of England at the Field of the Cloth of Gold in 1520; commenced hostilities against the Emperor Charles 5th in 1521; was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia in 1525, but restored to liberty by the treaty of Madrid in 1526. Though not naturally cruel, he was induced in 1544 to persecute the industrious and peaceable Vaudois on account of their religion. He died in 1547.

1547-1559. HENRY 2nd, son of Francis 1st, married Catherine de Medici. In his reign the Duke of Guise reconquered Calais and its territory, the last of the English possessions in France.

1559-1560.

PRANCIS 2nd, eldest son of Henry 2nd, married Mary Stuart, afterwards Queen of the Scots, and died at the age of 17.

1866-1874. CHARLER 9th, second son of Henry 2nd, succeeded. In this reign began the RELIGIOUS WARS. The Roman Catholics, headed by the Duke of Guise in Picardy (of the family of Lorraine, whose father had been naturalised by Francis 1st) sought to exterminate the Huguenors or Protestants, who were headed by the Prince of Condé (a branch of the Bourbon family) and Admiral Coligny. On St. Bartholomew's Day, Aug. 24, 1872, nearly 70,000 Protestants were, by order of the King, barbarously butchered. Soon after this massacre the king was taken ill, and languished with bodily pains till removed by death in May 1574.

1574-1589. Henry 3rd, the third son of Henry 2nd, succeeded. In 1575 he granted the Edict of Pacification with the Protestants, by which Liberty of Conscience and the Public Exercise of Religion were allowed to the Protestants, except within two leagues of Paris. This edict caused the bigoted Guise to form a counter Association, called the CATHOLIO LEAGUE, which struck at the very root of the Royal Authority. Hence arose another persecution against the Ruguenots. The Duke of Guise was murdered at Blois in 1588, and the King himself perished by assassination at the hands of a monk in 1589. Before his death he nominated Henry of Navarre as his successor. France at this time was in a deplorable state of anarchy and confusion.

1.2550N 21 .-- 161. HOUSE OF BOURBOX, 1589-1798.

1889-1610. Henry 4th, the Great, King of Navarre and Duke of Bourbon, was descended in the direct male line from Robert, Count of Clermont, fifth son of St. Louis. Henry 4th had been brought up a Calvinist by his mother, Jeanne d'Albret, daughter of Margaret of Valois, sister of Francis 1st. In Aug. 1872 he married Margaret, daughter of Catherine de Medici and sister of Charles 9th and Henry 3rd. Whilst celebrating his nuptials at Parls, he narrowly escaped the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day by embracing Catholicism. At last, in 1876, having escaped from Parls, he rejoined the Protestants, and became their leader. On the assassination of Henry Srd he had to fight for his crown against the Duke of Mayenne, the general of the Catholic League, whom he defeated at Arques in 1889, and Isry in March 1890. To secure the peaceable possession of the crown, however, Henry was forced to abjure Protestantism and embrace Romanism in 1893. In 1894 he entered Parls, and shortly after, the other cities submitted. In 1898, Henry passed the Edict of Nantis, which secured to his Protestant Subjects Freedom of Worship and Education, and even the occupancy of Rochelle and several other fortified cities. Henry's great and faithful minister was De Bethune, Duke of Sully, a Protestant, by whose skill, honesty, and unwearled exertions, the country, involved in debt and miserable from intestine wars, was restored to order and prosperity. Henry fell by the dagger of the assassin Ravaillac, a priest, May 14, 1610, when preparing for a war against Austria. He was the most popular monarch that ever reigned over France.

1610-1643. LOUIN 13th, the Just, son of Henry 4th, succeeded. His minister was Cardinal Richelicu, whose policy was to humble the nobility, crush the Protestants, and weaken the house of Austria. For this purpose, while supporting the Protestants in Germany in their 30 Years' war against the Emperor, he endeavoured to destroy them in France. This led to a renewal of the Reli-

gious Wars.

1843-1715. a. Lours 14th succeeded, when only 6 years of age, unfer the guidance of his mother, Anne of Austria, and Cardinal Masarin his minister. During his minority, great dissensions prevailed among the Courtiers and Nobles, which diminished their power and rendered them dependent on the court. The titles of the Nobles descended to their children, who regarded the pursuit of commerce and even of the professions, except that of arms, as a degradation. The maintenance of so many titled retainers at court and the frequent wars caused the country to be heavily burdened, whilst the privileges and exemption from taxation enjoyed by the clergy and nobility (so different from the mode of the English Aristocracy) rendered these burdens oppressive to the people. Hence arose the tumults of the Fronde or popular party (from fronder, to sling, carp at), against the Mazarias or court party, which excited a Civil War from 1648 to 1653. Soon after, war was carried on against the Emperor of Germany and the King of Spain, when Condé and Turenne gained several victories. In 1660 Louis married Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip of Spain.

- b. On the death of Masarin in 1661, the finances were in a most derauged state. Louis then took the reins of government in his own hands, and appointed Colbert his chief minister. In 1666, on the death of his father-in-law, Philip 4th of Spain, he claimed Flanders and Franche-Const, which he won, and secured by the treaty of Aix in 1667. His successes provoked an alliance against him of Holland, Sweden, and England, headed by the Prince of Orange. Louis himself took the field, with Condé and Turenne under his orders. Afterwards, the Emperor Leopold lat and Charles 2nd of Spain joined the alliance; but the war ended successfully for Louis by the treaty of Nimequen in 1678.
- c. In 1685, Louis, instigated by the Romish Bishops and Jesuits, REVOKED THE EDIOT OF NANTES, by which 700,000 of his most industrious, skilful, and useful subjects, the Protestants, were with their families driven from France and hospitably received by the neighbouring countries. Louis had previously attempted their conservine by quartering dragoose upon them; hence our term, dragonates! Shortly after the revocation of this edict, a more formidable Lesgue was formed against him, consisting of Germany, Holland, Savoy, Spain, and England, which ended by the treaty of Ryssick in 1697. By this treaty Louis acknowledged the title of William 3rd to the crown of England. In 1701, on the death of Charles 2nd of Spain without children, Maria Thereas, the eldest sister of Charles and decessed wife of Louis 14th, was the nearest relative; Louis, therefore, claimed the succession to the throne in favour of his grandson, Philip, Duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin. This claim was resisted by

Germany, England, and Holland, which led to what is called THE WAR OF THE SPANIER SUCCESSION. In this war the military genius of Mariborough was developed. At the peace of Utrecht, however, in 1718, the peaceable possession of the crown of Spain was secured to Philip 5th, the grandson of Louis.

d. The reign of Louis 14th is one of the most important in French History. In it the Royal Power was rendered Abolute; the Boundaries of France were extended by the addition of Roussillon, Artois, part of Flanders, Franche-Comté, and Alsace. In it raged the disputes of the Januarius and Jesuius.

Conneits James, bishop of Ypres in 1835, maintained in his work called Augustinus, the doctrine of free grace, which was condemned by Pope Clement 11th in his buil Unigenitus; which, however, was rejected by the French Church. Pascal, Tillemont, and other eminent men were Jamenists, and resided at Port Royal, a monastery near Paris. The Jesuits were a society formed by Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish officer of an ardent temperament, who, having been wounded at the slege of Pampelums in 121, afterwards devoted himself to theology, dedicated his life to the Blessed Virgin as her knight, and promised implicit bodiense to the Pops. The Jesuits held the doctrines of Pelagius, who denied original ain and depravity, and were implacable enemies to the Jamenists.

e. Louis was a liberal patron of the Arts, Sciences, and Literature; while his faithful minister, Colbert, sedulously fostered trade and manufactures, and vigithantly economised the finances of the country. Among the eminent men of this period are—Condé and Turenne, Generals; Bossnet, Bourdaloue, and Fenelon, distinguished for Bloquence; Corneille, Moltère, Racine, Bolleau, and La Fontaine, Poets; Pascal, Descartes, La Bruyère, and Rochefoucauld, profound Thisters and Moralists. Though Louis possessed many high qualities befitting a statesman, general, and monarch, yet his cruel persecution of the Huguenots showed him destitute of any proper knowledge of real Christianity, while his private life exhibited him as a mere sensualist.

L.BESON 32.—162. 1715-1774. a. LOUIS 15th, great grandson of Louis 14th, succeeded at 5 years of age, under the regency of his uncle Philip Duke of Orleans. At the age of 15 he assumed the government himself, and appointed Cardinal Fleury his minister. In this reign, the Duchies of Lorraise and Bar were added to France in 1768, and Corsica in 1768. The districts of Avignos and Vensitsin remained in the hands of the Pope. The small principality of Orange near Avignon, which formerly belonged to the family of William 8rd of England, had at his death been ceded to France in 1718.

b. The most noteworthy things connected with this reign are the following:—
1. The Finances of the nation had become so seriously deranged that the government, in order to restore them, most imprudently adopted the unsound East India and Mississipi Scheme of John Law in 1716. This scheme, founded merely on false credit, fell to the ground in 1720, when many hitherto opinient families were involved in utter ruin. Law himself died in poverty in 1729 at Venice.
2. On the death of the Emperor of Germany, Charles 6th, in 1740, leaving only a daughter, Maria Theresa, a dispute arose respecting the succession. Maria Theresa was assisted only by the English, Hanoverians, and Hungarians, against the Franch and Prussians, who favoured the Elector of Bavaria. The Elector became Emperor as Charles 7th. In this war, the French were defeated at Dettingen in 1743; but were victorious over the English at Fontency, nr. Tournay, in 1745. The war of the Austrian Succession terminated in the peace of Atx-la-Chapelle in 1748.
3. In May 1756 another war brake out, called the Esees years' war, waged by England and Prussia against France and Austria, when the French were defeated at Minden in 1759. This war was ended by the peace of Paris, 1763.
4. In 1764 the Jesuits were expelled from France and their property confiscated.
5. The frequent disputes between the Court and the Parliaments, or Chief Court of Justice in France, ended in their final suppression in 1771, which extinguished the last shadow of liberty.
6. Both the King and his Court had become notorious for their profitago; while the writings of Voltaire, Bousseau, and others, were preparing the way for great changes.

163.—1774-1798. THE REIGN OF LOUIS 16TH. LOUIS 16TH, the second son of the late dauphin, succeeded his grandfather, Louis 15th, in 1774, at the age of 20. He had married in 1770 Marie-Antoisette of Austria. He was crowned at Rheims amidst the enthusiastic applause of his people.

crowned at Rheims amidst the enthusiastic applause of his people.

To enable the Student to form correct ideas respecting the events which coursed in this reign, the evils arising from past extravagance and mismanage-

ment, as well as from those principles which had been industriously disseminated in the preceding reign, we shall briefly explain—1. The condition of the various classes of the people; 2. The Sources of Resenue; 3. The Royal Power; 4. The sequence of the more important events, and 5. The principles of the chief Factions.

- a. The People consisted of three Classes called *Etats* or States—the Clergy, Nobility, and the Commons or *iters-tust*. The *Nobility* were very numerous; for not only the children of a noble belonged to the same class as their father, but he class was frequently increased by the creation of new nobles. The *Chergy* were rich and powerful. Both the nobles and clergy possessed many privileges, and were nearly exempt from taxation; while the burden of taxation pressed heavily, and almost exclusively, on the *iters-etat* or mass of the people.
- b. The Revenue was derived from direct and indirect taxation. The Direct Taxes consisted—1, of a Land-lax, levied only on lands belonging to the tieratia; 2, the Capitation, to which all classes were subject; 3. a Property-lax, principally assessed on lands. The Indirect Taxes consisted—1. Of Customs of dues, levied not only on goods imported from abroad, but on those which passed merely from one part of France to the other, as was the custom of feudal times. 2. Of the monopoly of snuff, tobacco, and salt. The oppression was increased by farming-out the indirect taxes to the highest bidder, who exacted as much as he could. The Revenue thus extorted was frequently squandered in the most shameful manner.
- c. The Royal Power, at first very limited, had become in the reign of Louis 14th Absolute. The meetings of the States-General had been discontinued since 1614; the Municipal Institutions had been abolished; the Offices in towns were either hereditary, or acquired by favour or purchase; while the offices both of the State and of the Courts of Justice were so regulated as to give the people as little influence as possible. All these caused a fierce and deep-rooted indignation, which eventually burst forth at the Revolution in the most violent excesses.
- d. Events. Louis 16th, though naturally indolent, was amiable and honest. He made many useful reforms, and appointed upright men to his ministry, apong others were Turpot and Maleskerbes. Turgot recommended Retrenchment, the relinquishment by the nobles and clergy of some of their privileges, and the avoidance of any additional taxes. This judicious advice gave offence both to the courtiers and clergy, who tenaciously clung to their privileges. The honest Turpot was, therefore, diamissed, May 1776, and Necker, a retired Genevese banker, also a man of integrity, was appointed in his place. Necker retained office from 1776 to 1783, when he too was compelled to retire.
- e. In 1778, La Fayette and other French Officers joined the Americans in their revolt against England. This revolt was at first secretly and afterwards openly encouraged by the King and courtiers, and troops sent out in direct aid of the Americans. The mischief, however, intended against England eventually recoiled on the French; for, both officers and men became inflamed with the love of liberty, and, on their return, disseminated principles adverse to monarchy. On the close of the American war, a treaty of peace with England was signed in 1783...
- f. On the retirement of Necker in 1783, Culonae, an intriguing statesman, was appointed in his place, and struggled, by forced loans, till 1787. to control the increasing financial difficulties of the country. Failing in this, he convoked the 'Notables,' the most distinguished men of each rank in the kingdom, in order to obtain contributions from them, and induce the clergy and nobility to forego their exclusive privilege:. On the refusal of the Notables to accede to this proposal, Calonne was dismissed and Necker recalled.
- g. Through the influence of the restored Necker, the Estates General, which had not met since 1614, assembled May 5, 1789. This body, as previously stated, consisted of three Orders, the Nobles and Clergy, or the two Privileged Classes, and the Tiers-etat or Commons, consisting of the Representatives of the people throughout France. Each Order formed a separate House; and, as an aniority of Orders decided, any project displeasing to the privileged Classes was sure not to pass those two houses, and was lost. To obviate this difficulty Necker proposed to make the number of the third estate equal to that of the two other orders, which was done; and this was in fact the COMMENCEMENT OF THER REVOLUTION.
- A. On assembling, the privileged Classes required each order to meet in a separate house. This was opposed by the Third Estate, which, on being joined

by many of the nobility and some of the clergy, declared itself the NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, June 17, 1789. On June 20, the National Assembly having been shut out of its proper place of meeting by armed men, the members withdrew to the Tranis-Court of Versailles, and there, under the presidency of Bailly, declared on oath 'never to separate from the National Assembly, until a Constitution for the Kingdom was established on a solid foundation.' This declaration of course displeased the King, who, however, promised, on June 23, to abolish the pecuniary privileges of the Nobles and Clergy, but would retain his power over the army.

The whole country was now in a ferment. Numerous violent factions and clubs were formed. Inflammatory placards were posted in the streets of Paris, Versailles, &c. The passions of fiery demagogues were freely unloosed, and *Marales. Danton, Demoutins, Robespierre, and *Maral, became the leaders of the people. The people enrolled themselves in a national militia, called the *National Gward,* when the *Tri-coloured Flag was adopted by the Revolutionists. An insurrection was made against which the soldiers refused to act. On July 14 the Great Bastile was stormed, when many dreadful excesses were committed. The French Revolution may properly date from the demolition of the Bastile, July 14, 1789.

ELESSON 83.—164. CONSTITUENT ASSMELY, &c.—a. In July and Aug. 1789, many of the nobility and clergy fied from the country; those who remained surrendered their rights. Tithes were then abolished; and in the fullowing year the property of the church, amounting to upwards of 80,000,000. was confiscated. In October, the mobs compelled the King, Court, and Assembly, to remove to Paris, and soon after, the National Assembly assumed the name of CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY, and framed a new Constitution by which a Veto on certain points was allowed to the King. In Nov. 1789 the old divisions of the country into Provinces were abolished, and the kingdom parcelled out into 84 DEPARTMENTS.

b. On July 14, 1790, the King, the Assembly, and National Guards, assembled in the Champ-de-Mars, and took the oath to the new Constitution. Necker withdrew from the country in Sept. following. The year 1791 is an important one. In January, Mirabeau was made president of the Constituent Assembly, and thenceforward a friend to Monarchy and Order. As the great majority of the clergy had refused to take the oath of fidelity to the new Constitution, they were deprived of their benefices, Jan. 4, 1791. On March 18 the Right of Primogeniture in succession to property was abolished, which has ever since provid a great barrier to national stability, as there is no permanent influential class existing in France to come between the Monarch and the lower classes. On April 2. Mirabeau died; his robust constitution having, sink under the combined excitement of ambition, official exertions, and indulgence in pleasures. In him Louis lost a powerful triend.

To support public credit during these changes, ASSIGNATS, a paper currency, were issued by the National Assembly in April 1790. Of this paper, nearly 350,000,000, sterling were in circulation in France. Soon, however, they sunk in value, till at last no one would take them in exchange for Articles. They were withdrawn in 1796,

After Mirabean's death, the power of young men, simbitious anarchists, began to prevail. The position of the King became mere and more unpleasant; he and his family attempted to fly from France, June 21, 1791; but, unfortunately, they were recognised at Varennes, a town 15 miles from Verdun in Lorraine, and brought back to Paris. After his return, his position was more than ever painful; for he had now no Mirabeau to curb the violent unprincipled men who were struggling to abolish monarchy and set up Republicanism in its place. In this year, Avignon, formerly belonging to the Pope, was seized by the French.

c. In Sept. 1791, a new Constitution, which had been some time in preparation, was completed. By this, the members were to meet in one chamber, the King's Veto was much restricted, and the members of the present Assembly were to be ineligible for the next legislature. On Sept. 14 the King, who had previously been restored to apparent liberty, accepted the new constitution; and on Sept. 29, the sittings of the Constituent Assembly were closed by a speech from the King which was received with applause by the members.

On Oct. 1, 1791, the new or LEGISLATTVE ASSEMBLY, as it was called, opened its first session, and soon arranged itself into distinct parties. The Right side comprised the supporters of the Constitution, whose opinions were those of the

middle classes. The Left side comprised the Republicans, of whom the moderate were the Girondists, or deputies from the department of the Gironde, of whom Vergniaud, Brissot, and Condorcet, were the principal. The extreme men of the left side were connected with the Jacobis Club, and were called the Mountains, from their occupying the topmost benches of the left. The Centre was occupied by a fluctuating body, leaning now to one party and then to the other. On Oct. 7th the King entered the Assembly and delivered a conciliatory speech which was well received. The titles of Sire and Majesty applied to the King, had previously been dropped.

d. In 1792 the Emperor of Germany and the King of Prussia demanded of the Legislative Assembly the re-establishment of the French Monarchy on the footing of June 28, 1789, the re-establishment of the Chruch lands, and of the confiscated rights of the German princes in Alsace. These terms were rejected by the Assembly, and Louis was compelled, on April 20, to sanction the declaration of war against Germany and Prussia. On June 8th, the Assembly decreed the formation of a camp of 20,000 men near Paris, and the exile of all the non-juring Priests. These decrees the King refused to sanction. On the King's refusal, an excited mob, headed by *Sasterre*, a brewer, surrounded the hall of the Assembly, on June 20th, and demanded the dismissal of the Girondist Ministry which had already been done. They next proceeded to the palace, rushed into the presence of the King, and demanded the ratification of the decrees against the priests and of the formation of the camp near Paris. The King courageously met the rioters, and replied with dignified firmness, this is netther the time nor the way to obtain it. A red cap having been handed to him by a drunken workman, he calmly put it on his head. It was not till 8 o'clock in the evening, and after the arrival of Petion, Vergniaud, and others that the palace was evacuated by the mob. The heroism of the King, on this occasion, produced a re-action in his favour, when 20,000 citizens of Paris petitioned the Assembly for the punishment of the rioters. This re-action, however, the *Jacobius* resolutely endeavoured to arrest, and plotted more eterminedly for the dethronement of the King. For, on the festive assemblage on July 14th, to celebrate the Fail of the Bastile, the King was with difficulty protected by the Swiss guards from the violence of the mob which Danton and the Jacobin faction had collected.

e. Unfortunately, during this excitement, appeared the ill-timed proclamation (really of the King of Prussia, but ostensibly) of the Duke of Brussials, in which he warned the Legislative Assembly that if they did not liberate the King and return to their allegislative Assembly that if they did not liberate the King and return to their allegislative Assembly that if they did not liberate the King and return to their allegislative Assembly that if they did not liberate the King and return to their allegislance they should be held personally responsible and answer with their heads, &c. This proclamation was eagerly caught at by the Jacobins, who by their harangues inflamed the mob to the highest pitch of frensy. On Aug. 9, an attack was made on the Hotel de Ville, and the authorities overpowered and displaced by other magistrates selected by the insurgents. The Tulieries were next attacked, which were defended only by 800 Swiss and some National Guards. The Swiss nobly and successfully repulsed the first assault. But the mob, having been reinforced, ultimately overpowered and massacred them with unpitying ferocity. In this terrible crisis, the King and Boyal Family sought safety in the Assembly; but the powers of the Assembly had now passed into the hands of the new Municipality of Paris, which was ruled by the Jacobins—Danton, Robespierre, and Marat. Another Revolution had thus been effected. Nearly all the Departments of France submitted to the ruling party. Lajoyette, indeed, attempted to raise a spirit of loyalty in the army at Sedan in favour of the king, but his influence had already been undermined by his subordinates, so that he was compelled to seek safety in flight. He was imprisoned by the Austrians at Olmutz, for 4 years, when he was liberated, and died in 1834.

f. On the 13th of August, 1792, three days after the massacre of the Swiss, the Royal Family were transferred to the prion of the Temple, an isolated building surrounded with high walls. On Aug. 17, the Assembly, at the dictation of the Commune of Parts, instituted a Court for the trial of Political Offences, afterwards known as the REVOLUTIONARY TRIBUNAL. Lists of procribed persons were now drawn up by Dassion and the Jacobins: and on Aug. 29, many of these were, by order of the Commune, seized in their houses and imprisoned. On Sept. 2, commenced the most dreadful Massacres, in which above 5,000 persons perished by the hands of hired assassins; while their effects and estates were confiscated to enrich a murder-loving municipality.

- g. On Sept. 20, 1792, the Legislative Assembly was dissolved, and the deputies of the NATIONAL CONVENTION met. These had been elected under the influence of the Jacobin and other clubs. In this assembly, the Duke of Orleans, cousin of the King, who had abdicated his titles, sat as Philippe Equitic. The first act of the National Convention was to abolish Memarchy and declare france a Republic, Sept. 22, 1792. At the same time, the Calendar was changed, and the year styled 'the First of the French Republic.' In the meantime, the captivity of the Royal Family had been rendered by the Municipality as miserable as possible, and the King and dauphin separated from the Queen and princesses.
 - A. On Dec, 11, 1792, the King was summoned to appear at the bar of the Convention. He was charged with all the crimes of the Revolution, which he firmly denied. The mild intreplitly with which he confronted his accusers on this occasion melted for a moment even the most fanatic. Many of the Girondists shed tears. He was permitted to select counsel; of two selected Tronches accepted the dangerous task, and was nobly assisted by Deskee. On Dec. 26 Louis was again summoned before the Convention, when Deskee refuted every charge brought against him, and proved that the King had in every instance acted with sincere love for his people. The King then withdrew. For 20 days, stormy discussions ensued in the convention, of faction against faction. St. Just and Robespierre were the most violent of the King's enemies. The Girondists, fearing their own ruin, submitted to the violence of the Jacobins. At last, Louis was pronounced guilty; and, on Jan. 20, 1798, sentence of death was passed upon him. In pursuance of this decision, Louis 16th, for no crime of his own, was guillotined, Jan. 21, 1798, displaying to the last singular equanimity of temper. In private character, he was a man of unexceptionable virtue; but as a King, he needed greater penetration and decision to curb the violence of the daring spirits of the age, and to make those changes which the mismanagement and extravagance of former ages had rendered necessary.
 - 165. THE FACTIONS.—Of the numerous Factions which sprung up in these troublous times, 1789-83, the principal were the Constitutionalists, Girondists, and Jacobias.
 - a. The Constitutionalists were favourable to a Limited Monarchy and to Louis as the King. After the death of Mirabeau, who had become the leader of the party, they appear to have been unable to resist the growing influence of their violent rivals. b. The Groonder Revenue and Louis and their violent rivals. b. The Groonder Revenue and Louis of their violent rivals. b. The Groonde (Bordeaux). These were lepublicans, who formed their views partly from the classical models of Greece and Bome, and partly from ideal conceptions of an imaginary republic. Among them were many accomplished men, as Vergniaud, Brissot, Roland, and others. By opposing the Constitutionalists, however, they weakened the influence of the middle classes and added strength to the power of the Jacobins. Though adverse to the shedding of blood, most of them voted the death of the King. Many of them were guillotined in 1793, at the instigation of Robespiere. c. The Jacobins were so called from their meeting in the suppressed Jacobis or Dominican monastery in Paris. Their first members were chiefly deputies from Brittany, who were very hostile to the court and monarchy. Their numbers soon increased and obtained great influence, especially in 1792, when they had above 400 affiliated branches. They were republicans of the most violent kind. Mirabeau was at the first one of them; but, disgusted their designs, he became a friend to monarchy. The most violent and influential of this faction were Dantos, Marat, Robespierre, and St. Just. These men planned the attack on the Tulieries in Aug. 1792; the horrible massacres of the following September; the suppression of Royalty; the beheading of the King; and all the revolting cruelities in the Reign of Terror. Above 70 of them were afterwards guillotined.

LESSON 84a.—The First French Republic, Sept. 1792 to 1804.

- 166. On the Abolition of Monarchy, Sept. 22, 1792, France was declared a Republic. This assumed in succession three distinct Forms:—1. The Reign of Terror; 2. The Directorate; 3. The Consulate.
- 167. THE REMON OF TERROR commenced in the Massacree in Paris, Sept. 2, 1792, and extended to Oct. 26, 1795, when the Revolutionary Tribunal, appointed Aug. 17, 1792, and the Convention, appointed on Sept. 20, 1792, ceased to govern France. The Events which occurred in this short but dreadful Period will be here stated under three distinct heads:—I. Home Government and Events; 2. Girondist and Royalist Revolts; 3. External Wars.

- a. Home Gournment and Events.—The death of the King caused a short revulsion of popular feeling which manifested itself in the execrations uttered by the people against Santerre, the brewer. This feeling, however, was checked by the renewal of the contentions between the Jacobins and Girondists. About the same time, too, Demourier, regretting the death of the King, and disgusted with the violent measures of the Jacobins, aimed at the restoration of a Constitutional Monarchy. Failing to secure the adhesion of his soldiers to his plans, he was compelled to take refuge (April 3, 1793) within the Austrian lines, and atterwards found an asylum in England, where he died in 1823. The Jacobins charged the Girondists with favouring Dumourier's defection, as well as with their attempts to save the late king. To accomplish their object, they succeeded in establishing the afterwards notorious 'Committee of Public Safetty,' consisting of 25 members, who were invested with full authority to prepare and execute whatever Laws and Measures they thought necessary for the affect of the Republic. This, as was intended, proved one of the most terrible engines of tyranny that could have been devised. The Girondists soon elit the power of this Committee. For, in May 1793, many of them were proscribed by their implacable enemies, of whom the chief were Danton, Robespierre, and Marat. Some succeeded in escaping, others were seized, arraigned before the Revolutionary Tribunal, and condemned. They ceased as a party in June 1738; and in Oct. following, Vergniaud and 21 others were guillotined, dying with heroto fortitude.
- b. Resolutionary Committees were soon multiplied throughout France, so that above \$40,000 persons were receiving pay by this iniquitous system of terrorism. On July 13, 1798, the infamous Marcat was stabbed by Charlotte Cordory, who adopted this bad mode of avenging her country's ills. She was guillotined on July 17, 1793. The Jacobins seized this opportunity to arrest 73 members of the Convention suspected of favouring the Girondists. The next was QUEEN MARIE-ANTOINETER, who was guillotined Oct. 16, 1793, dying with Christian firmness. On Nov. 6, 1793, the notorious Dute of Orleans, Philippo Epatite, who had shamefully forwarded the Revolution and voted the death of the King, was mimself guillotined, unregretted by any one. Two days after, Madame Elisabeth, sister of Louis 18th, was guillotined. Infidelity was now almost universal; the Calendar had already been changed; the Sabbath and the Services of Reison were now abelished, and each Month was divided into three Decades. The most degrading principles were disseminated, and an infamous woman exalted in the principal church, and worshipped as the goddess of Reason!
- c. In 1794, the Jacobins and Anarchists having guillotined or massacred their opponents, now began to quarrel among themselves. The result was soon seen. On March 24, 1794, Gobet, the apostate bishop, and other Anarchists were guillotined; and, on March 30, Danton, Desmoulins, and others, were arrested at the instigation of Robespierre. Danton, on entering his prison, exclaimed, 'At last I perceive that in Revolutions, power finally rests with the most abandoned.' He and his associates were guillotined on April 16. By the death of Danton, Robespierre, St. Just, and Couthon became the undisputed leaders of the country. The prisons of Paris were now soon filled with persons implicated by the Revolutionary Committees. These unfortunate persons were daily led out to execution in bands of 30, 60, or 100 each; while numbers, unable to bear suspense, committed suicide.
- d. In the midst of these atrocities, a magnificent fête was celebrated in the gardens of the Tuileries in honour of the Supreme Being, when Robespierre officiated as High Priest! To show the hollowness of such worship, the Proscriptions, both in Paris and the Provinces, were continued with unabated fury. Nor were these confined as before to the Upper and Middle Classes, but included every class above the lowest. Even the Convention itself began to tremble, for Robespierre was known to be plotting the destruction of some of his old associates. On July 26, 1794, he demanded in the Convention the punishment of persons whom he named as traitors. The implicated deputies, however, boldly and unexpectedly defended themselves, and then charged Robespierre with paralysing the Assembly. Disconcerted by this courageous and unexpected resistance, Rebespierre withdrew. After his departure, the implicated deputies immediately combined with the relics of the Girondists to make common cause. On Robespierre's appearance in the Assembly on the following day, he was boldly confronted by the deputies, when Tailien recapituated all the enormities of which the tyrant had been guilty. Robespierre, unable to obtain a hearing, quitted the hall again in dismay, when he was immediately arrested, along with his principal adherents. A detachment of the National Guard, box

ever, released him and brought him in triumph to the Hotel de Ville. At this critical moment Tallien and his friends remained firm, and immediately passed a decree declaring Robespierre, Henriot, and others, outlows; and, at the same time, summoned the loyal part of the National Guards to the defence of their representatives. Barras soon appeared at the head of such of the National Guards as remained faithful. A contest seemed imminent; for Henriot was endeavouring to persuade the insurgent guards to fire on the Convention. On their refusal to comply, he fied to the Hotel de Ville, whither he was followed by Barras and selzed. At last, the insurgent guards, returning to loyalt refused to resist the decree of the Convention. Robespierre and his associates were then arrested, tried by the Revolutionary Tribunal, and condemned. He was led to the guillotine on July 29, 1794, in the presence of an immense assemblage, who observed a solemn silence till the head was severed from the body, when they raised a loud and unanimous cheering!

e. During this period, the condition of France was truly wretched. The National Expenditure exceeded 12,000,000£, a month, which was met by the increased in proportion to the quantity. The prices of articles rose to an eaormous height, which increased the distress and discontent of the lower orders. This necessitated the Law of Maximum, by which holders of grain, cattle, horses, and stores of every kind were compelled to sell at prices fixed by each Commune, and were paid only in Assignats. Forced Loans, also, were exacted, while the previous loans were virtually extinguished, by being converted into Annuities at 5 per cent.; the nation being thus relieved from ever discharging the principal. Notwithstanding these arbitrary measures, so great a scarcity arose, that only half a pound of meat per head was allowed to each family. Manufactures and Commerce were rained; artisans were without regular employment, and the peasant farmers were compelled to sell the fruit of their toils at mere nominal prices; while the nobles, gentry, and clergy had either been guillotined, or were wanderers in foreign lands.

f. On the downfall of Robespierre a new party arose, called Thermidorians (from the month Thermidor, July, in which the tyrants fell). This party, composed of moderates of all the sections and of the remnants of the royalists, was soon joined by the Jeuneus Dorée, a number of young men of respectable birth, whose relatives were either exiles or had been guillotined. The combined efforts of these were directed against the Jacobins, in which they were assisted by the revulsion of feeling in favour of humanity. Carrier, the motorious agent of the NoyaDes and other barbarities at Nantes, was executed. The Law of Maximum and other oppressive enactments were abolished. Against these measures, however, the Jacobins and their friends raised a formidable insurrection of 30,000 pikemen, who attacked the Convention. After a bloody contest, the pikemen were completely routed by the Jeuneuse Dorée and the troops of the Sections, May 24, 1795. Shortly afterwards, the National Guard was reorganised, workmen and indigent citizens were excluded; and, on June 17, 1795, The Revolutionary Tribunal Iraxii was supremessor, which terminated the reign of the mob, 6 years from its commencement on the Fall of the Basiste. Great distress again prevailed in Paris, from the scarcity of food and depreciation of the Assignata, which fell below the hundredth part of their nominal value. Another change was now taking place in the minds of many, in the abandomment of those democratic principles which had so long and so pernicionaly reigned. In some instances, measures of retailation were exercised against the terrorists. On June 9, 1795, the son of Louis 16th, commonly styled Louis 17th (though he never reigned) died in prison at the age of 12 years, from ill-treatment. His sister (afterwards Duchess of Angoulème) was soon after liberated.

g. In the meantime, the Convention was preparing a new Constitution (the third within a few years), which differred much from the preceding. By this, the Assembly was to consist of two Councils—a Council of 500, which alone should originate Laws, and a Council of Ancients (consisting of persons of 40 years of age and upwards) which should have the power of passing or rejecting them. The privilege of electing members was to be transferred from the body of the people to Colleges of Delegates, and the Executive Power was to be vested in Five Directors, nominated by the Five Hundred and approved by the Ancients, one of whom was to retire by rotation every year. This Constitution was strongly opposed by Jacobins, Royalists, and some of the Thermidorians. A collision took place on Oct. 8 (11th Vendemiaire), when Gen. Menou was ordered to disperse the insurgents, consisting of the electors of Paris and the

National Guard. Menou, failing to accomplish this, was superseded by Barras, who immediately employed Napolson Buonaparte as his Lieutenant. On the day following, the National Guard appeared before the Convention to the number of 30,000 strong, but without artillery. To oppose this, Buonaparte had only 6,000 regulars, but a powerful artillery. The arrangement of his troops was so judicious and his artillery so well served, that the ranks of the guards were soon dreadfully thinned by the discharges of musketry and the grape-shot of the cannon. The victory of the regulars was complete, and the insurrection effectually crushed. The Convention used its triumph with moderation, and few executions followed. Afterwards, the Elections of the Councils, both of the 500 and of the Ancients were proceeded with, and conducted with fairness. The Directorate was vully established, Oct. 26, 1795. The last Act of the hitherto blood-stained Assembly indicated a return to humanity by passing a General Amsety.

LESSON 84b. 168.—GIRONDIST AND ROYALIST REVOLTS.—s. The downfall of the Girondists excited great discontents in the South of France, particularly at Lyons, Marseilles, and Toulon, which had always been favourable to that party. A Revolt took place in June, 1793, when several of the Jacobin leaders were put to death. At the siege of Toulon, Napoleon Buonaparte, then a young artillery officer, first distinguished himself by directing the batteries of the Republicans against the town, which was compelled to surrender. The Revolt in all the above named places was, after an heroic resistance, finally suppressed by the armies of the Republicans. The treatment undergone by the captives was inhuman in the extreme. They were bound together in groups of sixties or hundreds, and then massacred by discharges of grape-shot, called Miraillades, or by volleys of muskerty, called Fusillades.

- b. Vendée, Deux Sévrez, Loire Inférieure, and Maine and Loire. This portion of West France was occupied by small farmers and their labouers, who were much attached to their clergy and Seigneurs, a class of proprietors corresponding to our gentry or country Squires, who (contrary to the custom prevalent among the higher nobility), resided on their estates among their tenantry. Though the Vendeans had always disliked the principles and actions of the Republicans, yet they had quietly submitted, till they saw their clergy expelled for refusing to take the Revolutionary oaths, and were themselves required by the convention to supply a levy of 800,000 men to swell the Republican Ranks. They then, in March 1793, broke out into Revolt, headed by Lescure, D'Elbee, Bonchamps, Larochejacquelin, Stofflet, and others. For several mouths they successfully repelled the armies of the Republicans; but, in 1794, they suffered several severe reverses. The Convention gave orders to destroy all the castice and grain, slaughter the people, and burn their houses. Carrier, a monster of crueity (who was himself afterwards guillotined, see p. 111), ordered the captives to be carried out by troops in vessels, and the vessels sunk in the Loire, till all they contained were drowned. These wholesale drownings were called Noyades. At Nantee alone, above 16,000 persons perished within one month, either in prison or by the Noyades. A peace was afterwards made in Feb. 1795, but soon after the war was resumed and continued to March 1796, when it was terminated by Gen. Hooke; and the leaders Stofflet and Charette executed, along with 800 others, who had surrendered under promise of safety.
- c. In 1794, the Chouan-War in Brittanny began, in consequence of the cruelties inflicted on the Breton peasants for sheltering the Vendean fugitives. It was called *Chouan*, from their chief, Jean Cottereau, using the cry *Chathuant*, or screech-owl, as a signal. This war was with difficulty suppressed.
- **169.** EXTERNAL WARS.—a. The formidable Invasion of France by Austria and Prussia in Aug. 1792 on behalf of Louis, was successfully repelled before the end of the year with the loss of *Flanders* to Austria, and the seizure of Savoy and Nice from Sardinia, which were converted into departments of France.
- b. On Nov. 19, 1792, the Convention promulgated a Decree—'that they would grant fraternity and succour to every people disposed to recover their liberty, with the suppression of nobility, all exclusive privileges, and all constituted authority.' This was a direct encouragement to rebellion, bloodshed, and anarchy throughout the world—to the abolition of order, religion, property, and security for life itself. It was not till after this declaration of the Convention, the decapitation of the King, and the actual declaration of war by

France, that England joined the Coalition with Austria, Prussia, Holland, Spain, Portugal, and Sardinia, against France in Feb. 1798.

- c. At first, the Allies were eminently successful, and the French defeated in several engagements. But after the appointment in Paris of the 'Committee of Public Safety,' the whole power of France was called forth, and a levy of 1,200,000 men soon made a number far exceeding what the allies could muster. The efficiency of this vast number was increased by the System of merit-promotion adopted by Cannor, the organiser-in-chief of the French armies. Added to this, a forced Tax and an unlimited issue of Assignats, gave the government boundless resources; while the terror of the guillotine was threatened against generals who proved unsuccessful! By these means, the energies of the French were redoubled; while the allies, frequently divided by jealousies, sustained several severe defeats throughout the campaign of 1794.
- d. In January, 1795, Holland was overrun by the French, the Stadtholder compelled to take refuge in England, and the confederacy against the French Republic dissolved. On Jan. 22, peace with Prussis was signed at Basle, by which the King acknowledged the Bepublic, and engaged not to oppose the extension of the French frontier to the Rhine. The whole weight of the war now fell on Austria and England. Austria engaged for a subsidy of 6,000,000s. from Ragland, to supply 200,000 men to continue the war, while the English land forces were raised to 150,000 men, and many additional ships of the line put in commission. In Feb. following, Russia joined this alliance, but only assisted by sending a squadron to join the English fleet under Admiral Duncan. The close of the Campaign of 1795 terminated favourably for the allies. During the Reign of Terror, it is stated that France lost by external and internal war, by the guillotine, fusillades, and noyades, upwards of 1,500,000 persons!

LESSON 85.-170. THE DIRECTORATE, Nov. 1, 1795, to Nov. 10, 1799.

- a. 1796.—The first Directors were Barras, Rewbel, Lepaux, Letourneur, and Carnot. At the time of their undertaking office, the Finances were in great confusion, and the taxes above 60,000,000. In arrears. The Assignath had so sunk in value, that 10,000 francs in paper were not equivalent to 20 in specie. The soldiers were poorly paid, destitute of all proper equipment, and dispirited by their recent defeats on the Rhine; while the roads were infested by banditti formed of deserters. The Directors endeavoured to check the depreciation of Assignats by issuing Mandats, another species of paper; one mandat being equal to 30 assignats. But the mandats soon shared the same fate as the assignats. At last, two-thirds of the National Debt were converted into Bills; which, however, never could be negotiated. This was an act of National Baskruptey. The Directors were in other respects more successful. They repealed the Law of Maximum, declared the Press free, and reformed the internal Police of the country. Still Religion remained prostrate; the churches closed; no religious services performed; and no religious instruction imparted to the young.
- b. During 1796 the English Government made two overtures to the French Directory for peace—one on March 8, which was immediately closed on learning that the French were determined on retaining both Holland and Belgium; and another on Oct. 22, which was broken off for a similar reason.
- c. Prussia, in order to secure the neutrality of Northern Germany, arranged with France, Aug. 5, 1796, to recognise the Franch boundary of the Rhine, and to indemnify the dispossessed princes by the secularisation of the Ecclesiastical States of the Empire—a measure which hastened the fall of the Germanic Constitution and Empire.
- d. The War on the Rhine in 1796 was carried on with vigour by the Austrians under the Archduke Charles, who had superseded the able Clairfait. The generals on the French side were Jourdan, Moreau, Bernadotts, and Kleber. The campaign terminated on the whole favourably to Austria and her allies. The cruel exactions which the French made at this time, and the abominable excesses of the soldiers, rendered them objects of deep hatred to the German peasantry, and served to deepen that patriotism which afterwards rescued Germany from foreign subjugation.
- c. The Campaign in Italy in 1796 was, through the influence of Barras and Carnot, cutrusted to NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE, as Commander-in-chief. Napoleon was born Aug. 15, 1769, at Ajaccio in Corsica, of a noble but decayed family.

At the age of 10 he was sent to the military school at Brienne in 1779, whence, in 1784, he was removed to one in Paris. In Sept. 1785, he received his commission as sub-lieutenant, and soon after that of lieutenant. When the Bevolution broke out, he took the popular side; but the reign of terror gave him a disgust for democracy. At the siege of Toulon he was appointed Colonel of the Artillery, and in Feb. 1794, Brigadier General. On the downfall of Robespierre. Napoleon was placed under arrest, but released in a fortnight. On Oct. 4, 1795, he was appointed by Barras to defend the Convention, a task which he successfully performed. In Feb. 1796, he was appointed to the command of the army in Italy, and shortly afterwards married Josephine, the widow of Viscount de Beanharnois, who had been guillotined. A few days after his marriage he proceeded to the army in Italy, which then consisted of about 42,000 men, ill-equipped and miserably paid. With this force he had to contend against the combined armies of Austria and Piedmont under the veteran Beanlieu. After some skirmishing, he gained the battle of Deepo near Acqui, on April 20, which opened to him the plains of Italy. On May 15 the King of Sardissis made peace with the Directory, by withdrawing from the Coalition and coding to the French several fortresses and the passes of the Alps. Buonaparte now crossed the Po at Placentia, May 1st; forced the passage of the Adda, at the Bridge of Lodi, May 10, heading his grenafilers in person; and, in the face of a tremendous fire of grape from the Austrians, compelled the enemy to retreat with the loss of 2,000 men. The heroism displayed by him on this occasion obtained from the soldiers the familiar title of the *Little Corporal.* He next took possession of Milan, May 15, and of all Lombardy except Mantua, which he blockaded.

- f. Alarmed at these rapid successes, the King of Naples obtained an armistice from the French, and withdrew from the Austrian alliance; while the Pope purchased peace by the payment of 20,000,000 francs and many treasures of art. Mantua alone in Northern Italy remained to Austria, which Marshal Wurmser succeeded in relieving, Aug. 1. Wurmser was, however, defeated at Modols, Aug. 5; at Roveredo, Sep. 4; and Bassano, Sept. 8; from which place with difficulty he forced his way to Mantua. Another Austrian army, under Marshal Alvinzi, attacked the French near the borders of the Tyrol, and reduced them to great extremities. The genius and determination of Napoleon, however, ultimately surmounted the difficulties, and signally defeated the Austrians at Arcola, Nov. 14, 1796, compelling them to retire to Vicenza.
- g. Wherever the French armies remained, the most violent excesses were committed, so that soveral insurrections of the peasantry took place, in which many French soldiers were killed. These insurrections were crushed with meriless severity. Pavia was given up to the troops, when every sort of outrage was committed. Enormous contributions, also, were levied on the Dukes of Para and Modens, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the Pope. In his first campaign, Buonaparte gent to the needy Directory 50,000,000 of francs, along with a great number of most valuable paintings and works of art.
- 171.a. The Campaign of 1797 was commenced by the Austrian General Alvinzi's attacking Joubert at Rivoli, Jan. 14. The French left was broken by the impertuosity of the Imperialists, when Buonaparte, who had joined only on the previous night, saw the critical situation of his army, and sent a flag of truce to Alvinzi, pretending some proposals had come from Paris. By this stratagem he gained time to alter his position, while Alvinzi, thus imposed upon, suffered the critical moment to pass, and was soon atter signally defeated. Immediately after, Buonaparte hastened to Mantus, defeated Provers marching to its relief, Jan. 16, and afterwards compelled Wurmser himself to capitulate, Feb. 2. He then compelled the Pope, who had rashly plunged into war during the late conflicts on the Adige, to sue for peace, which was granted, Feb. 18, but the cession of Avignon, Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna, and the payment of 15,000,000 of livres, part in cash and part in diamonds, within one month, and as much again in two months, besides horses, cattle, and paintings.
- b. Buonaparte next resolved on marching against Vienna. For that purpose the army moved from Bassano, March 10, passed the Tagliameno, where Napoleon repulsed the Austrians under the Archduke Charles, March 16; occupied Laybach, Mar. 19, forced the difficult defiles of Neumarkt, though defended by the Archduke in person, April 2. On April 7 a suspension of arms was agreed upon between Austria and France at Leoben, and Preliminaries of Peace signed April 9. After many conferences, a definite Treaty of Peace was

signed at Campo-Formio, 7 miles S. W. of Udine in Venetia, Oct. 17, 1797. On the conclusion of the armistice at Leoben, French emissaries excited the diaaffected in the Venetian Republic to revolt, March 12, which provoked a counter revolt of the peasantry in April. The enraged peasantry attacked both the democrats and the French as the real instigators of the Revolution. At Verona they put to death the wounded French who were in the hospital. This served Napoleon as a pretext for declaring war against Venice, which he accordingly dld, May 2, 1797. In vain the well-affected and labouring classor resisted. The Senate was compelled to abdicate, May 12, when the French entered the city in Venetian vessels in triumph. Soon the vast treasures of the Republic, the ships and works of art, with the golden Book, the record of the Aristocracy, were seized by the French, as proofs of Venetian subjection. About the same time, democratic revolts, instigated, as in Venice, by French agents, took place in Genoa and Piedmost, and ended as usual in the subjection of those states to French domination.

c. By the Treaty of Campo-Formio, Austria ceded to France—Flanders, the left bank of the Rhine, and the city of Mainz; she consented that the French should have the Ionian Isles and part of Albania; she acknowledged Lombardy, Modena, Bologna, Massa, Romagua, &c., as the CISALFINE REFUBLIC under French protection; whilst the city of Venice and its continental possessions, with Istria and Dalmatia, were to be ceded to Austria. Tuscany, Parma, Rome, and Naples, were left (for the present) under their old princes. During these Campaigns, to quote the words of Sir Archibald Alison, 'Buonaparte introduced the system of accumulating troops on a central point, piercing the line of the enemy, and compensating by rapidity of movement for inferiority of numbers.' After settling the affairs of the Cisalpine Bepublic, and transferring Venice to Austria, Buonaparte left Italy in Nov. and arrived in Paris in Dec. 1797, where he was received with great honour by the Directory.

EXESSON 36.—171b. EXPEDITION TO BGYPT, 1798. a. Though the Directory received Napoleon with great honour, they had become jealous of the influence which he possessed over the army, and had resolved on employing him on some dangerous expedition. They, therefore, appointed him over the army destined to invade England. After examining the coast and the fleet, he declined the appointment. They next decided on fitting out an Expedition against Egypt, not that either Egyptor Turkey, to which it nominally belonged, had done any wrong to France, for both of them were at peace with it, and unconscious of any hostile attack. Napoleon at that time entertained visions of Rastern conquest and of subjugating India. He sailed from Toulon, May 19, 1798, in a well-equipped fleet, conveying 38,000 soldiers. On June 10 he took Malta, which surrendered without firing a shot. Having, as usual, seized the treasures of the Maltess Knights, the plate of the churches, and the warlike stores of the arsenals, he departed, leaving a garrison of 3,000 men to protect the island. On July 1 the fleet approached Egypt, and on the following day Buonaparte disembarked with 5,000 men and took Alexandria after a short resistance. At this time the pop. of Egypt was about 2,500,000, of whom about 200,000 were Copts or native Christians, 200,000 Turks, and the rest Arabs, consisting of landed proprietors and fellath or cultivators. The actual Beys, paying only a nominal obedience to the Porte. Buonaparte requested his soldiers to manifest the same regard to the Korana step showed to the religion of Moses and Christ, while he assured the Egyptians that the French were true Moslema. The decisive battle of the Pyramida, nr. Catro, was fought July 21, 1798, when 6,000 Mamilukes and 12,000 Arabs, under Mourad Bey, were, after a brave defence, signally routed. Two days after Buonaparte entered Catro. Drahim Bey, who at first had retreated to kyria, returned and attacked the French, but was repulsed with great slaughter. Buonaparte endeavoured to deceive th

b. In the meantime, Lord Nelson, who was traversing the Levant in search of the French fleet, at length, Aug. 1, discovered it in the Bay of Acoustir most advantageously moored. He resolved at once to attack it. The English has 1,012 guns and 8,068 men; the French 1,196 guns and 11,230 men. The battle began at 3 in the afternoon, and was contested with determined bravery on both sides till early next morning, when it was found that the whole French line had struck except two men-of-war and two frigates, which stood out to see and escaped. No sooner was the triumph complete than thanksgivings were offered up to the Almighty by the whole fleet for the success vouchsafed to them. Of 13 French ships of the line, 9 were taken and 2 burnt; of 4 frigates, one was sunk and one burnt. So complete was the Victory of the Nile.

- c. In this critical situation, the firmness of Buonaparte did not forsake him. Under his management, mills, hospitals, and printing presses were established, and the geography and antiquities of the country investigated. Several native revolts broke out, but were suppressed, and the leaders thrown into the Nile. He next determined on invading Syrie. With only 13,000 foot and 900 horse, he commenced his march on Feb. 11, 1799. Arish, the frontier town of Syria surrendered, but Jaffa gallantly resisted till Mar. 6, when it was taken by storm, 4,000 men of the garrison who had surrendered on the promise of safety were afterwards shot in cold blood! On March 23, 1799, an attack was made on the celebrated fortress of Acre, which was defended by the Turks and some British sallors and marines under Sir Sidney Swith. This attack was repulsed, and also a second, made on April 1. In the meantime, a Syrian army of 30,000 men was defeated at Nazareth by Kleber, April 8, and finally routed at Mt. Tabor, April 15, by Buonaparte. The siege of Acre was then resumed, but the defenders, having been reinforced, resisted the utmost efforts of the French. After losing 3,000 men, Buonaparte, for the first time in his life, ordered a retreat, May 20, 1799. In his retreat to Egypt his army suffered severely, both from the plague and from the incessant attacks of the Arabs. During his absence, the government of Egypt had been prudently administered by Desait. On July 26, he was suddenly attacked by a Turkish army under Mustapha Pasha at Aboukir, but the attack was repulsed, and the Pasha and many of his men taken prisoners. Having received intelligence of the French reverses in switzerland and Italy, Buonaparte resolved to return home; and accordingly, with Lannes, Murat, Marmont, and other devoted followers, he embarked on Aug. 22, at Alexandria, in two frigates, which, with difficulty having escaped the English cruisers, arrived on Oct. 8 in the Bay of Frejus, where he landed, and thence proceeded to Paris.
- d. Shortly after the Treaty of Campo-Formio, Oct. 17, 1787, the following Republics had become affiliated to France, by being forcibly compelled to adopt the French form, to make an alliance offensive and defensive, supply contingents of men, and to contribute largely to the maintenance of the French armies:—
- The Batavian Republic, comprising Holland;
 The Helectic, or Switzerland;
 The Roman, comprising the Pope's Dominion;
 The Cleatpine, comprising Lombardy, Manthas, Modena, Parma, &c.;
 The Lipurion, including Genca and Piedmont;
 The Parthenopean, comprising the Kingdom of Naples.
- e. The Victory of the Nile revived the spirit of resistance in Austria to retrieve her losses. In Dec. 1788, an Alliance offensive and defensive was concluded between Great Britain and Russia, by which England agreed to advance 226,000. with a monthly subsidy of 75,000. to Russia. Austria was ready to take the field with 250,000 men, and Russia with 60,000 under the brave and skilful Suscarrow. To mest these forces, the French exacted the Law of Conscription, by which all Frenchmen between 20 and 45 years of age were liable to military service. At the same time, they required Holland and Switzerland each to supply a contingent of 18,000 men. Buonaparte and his army were in the meantime shut up in Egypt. Hostilities commenced by Jourdan's passing the Upper Rhine, on March 1, 1799. At first, the French gained several advantages over the Austrians, but afterwards they were signally defeated by the Archduke Charles, at Stockach, March 26. In Switzerland, too, the peasants had risen in various places against their French oppressors, though these risings were, in general, soon suppressed, and punished with relenties severity. At Magnano, the French were defeated with great slaughter by the Austrians under Kray, April 5, and compelled to retreat behind the Adds; while the whole of Lombardy was recovered in May by the Russians under Suscarrow, and in Piedmont the French were sorely harassed by the hostile peasantry. At Trebtia, a most sangulary battle was fought from Jusse 17.

to 19, 1799, when the French, under Moreau and Macdonald, sustained a terrible defeat, with the loss of 12,000 men, by the Russians under Suvarrow. At Now, also, the French were defeated, Aug. 14, by the Russians and Austrians under Suwarrow, and shortly after, were driven from the North of Italy with the exception of Genoa. In Switzerland, however, the allies suffered several severe reverses. Zwich was captured by Masseans, when a frightful carnage ensued in the streets, Sept. 28; and Suwarrow, after having forced the passage of St. Gothard, was compelled to retreat over the Alps of Glarus till he reached Ilants in the Grisons, Oct. 16. The jealousies which had sprung up between Russia and Austria materially injured the efforts of their generals, and prevented them from effecting anything further in this Campaign.

f. An expedition fitted out on Aug. 28, 1709, by England and Russia under the Duke of York and Sir Balph Abercrombie, against Holland and the French, though at first successful, ended disastrously; for the troops were compelled to evacuate Holland in Nov. 1799.

172. We must now glance at the internal state of France during the Directorate, Nov. 1795 to Nov. 1799.

a. The opinions of the people during this period underwent many changes. The cruelties and horrors of the Beign of Terror had produced so strong a revulsion of feeling in the majority, that when the remnant of the Jacobins attempted to revive the reign of terror, many of them were seized and shot. This attempt induced others to combine in favour of regular, but the combination was crushed by the Directors Barras, Rewbel, and Lepaux, who were too seriously implicated in past excesses to allow the revival of monarchy. In this decision, they were assisted by Hoche and Buonaparte, who had ambittous schemes of their own to forward through the maintenance of Republicanism. Pichegru, Barthelemy, and other favourers of royalty were arrested and banished to Guyana; the judges and the authorities were arbitrarily changed, and the freedom of the puress and trial by jury abolished. This is called the Revolution of the 18 Fructidor (Aug.), 1797.

b. Another change took place in March 1799, when Sityes became a colleague with Barras in the Directorate. Notwithstanding the numerous contributions from abroad, the expenses were so great that the Finances were embarrassed, so that the Directors were compelled to levy forced loans, as well as put in operation the Law of Conscription for recruiting the armies. The Republic at this time appeared on the brink of ruin, without a head to guide; while the necessity of restoring monarchy became more and more generally entertained. At this juncture, Napoleon landed at Prejus, Oct. 8, 1799. His progress from Prejus to Paris was one continued triumph.

c. Napoleon saw that the moment for seizing supreme power had arrived. Proceeding with caution, he first secured the promised support of the generals and officers. On Nov. 8 he addressed the Council of the Ancients. On Nov. 8 he didressed the Council of the Ancients. On Nov. 8 he didressed the Council of the Ancients. On Nov. 9 5,000 troops surrounded St. Cloud, when Napoleon appeared with his officers at the Bar of the Ancients. One of the members called on him to swear to the Constitution. Recovering his energy, Napoleon then denounced the repeated violations of the Constitution of which the Directors had been guilty, and threatened vengeance against any one who dared to propose outlassing, him Hastening then to the Hall of Five Hundred, of which his brother Lucien was President, he entered it alone, leaving his soldiers at the door. Instantly he was surrounded by a furious crowd, exclaiming, 'Death to the Dictator,' 'No Cromwell.' At this the soldiers rushed in and forced him from the hall. Napoleon them mounting his horse, harangued his troops, who appeared to hesitate about taking action, when his brother Lucien opportunely came to his assistance, and declared aloud to the soldiers 'that the Council was enthralled by a factious band armed with daggers, who interdict all freedom of deliberation. Let force expel those who remain in the Orangery; they are representatives, not of the people, but of the poniard.' This settled all heditancy. Immediately Murat and Le Clerc with a battalion cleared the hall. On the same night about 60 members of the two Councils assembled, passed a decree abolishing the Directory, and appointed three provisional Consuls.—Napoleon, Sièges, and Duco. Within a very short period, a New Constitution was drawn up, in which it was fired that there should be Three Consul, the First alone to possess the real authority, the two others being only advisers. Napoleon was then confirmed as First Consul, and he appointed Cambacères and Lebrum second and

by the Consuls for life, each with a salary of 1,000l. a year. 2. A Tribunate of 100 members (afterwards reduced to 50), each with 650l. a year, was to discuss the legislative measures with the Council of State. 3. A Legislative Body of 300 members, each with 400l. a year, without the power of debate. On December 24, the new Constitution was proclaimed, and gladly adopted by the great majority of the people, as the termination of revolutionary convultion.

LESSON 87 .- THE CONSULATE, 1799 to 1804.

173. To the preceding Lessons a larger space than usual has been allotted, that a clear explanation might be given of those principles and events which entailed so much misery, not only on France, but on every country in Europe, and of which the consequences are still felt. The remaining chapters of French History will be confined to an enumeration of only the most important internal measures and Military Events.

EARLY INTEUNAL MEASURES.—Among the earliest acts of Napoleon as First Consul were the following:—a. He allowed Carnot, Barthelemy, and other exiled members of the former Council of Five Hundred, to return to France. b. He succeeded in pacifying La Vendée and Brittany; for, the insurgent chiefs, seeing they had to deal with a different person than the fickle and tyramnical Directors, gradually submitted; and, in Jan. 1800, the pacification of the country was announced by the publication of a General and Unqualified Amsesty. c. Napoleon's measures, too, gradually obtained the confidence of Capitalists, who now made advances; while the unsold National Domains began to find purchasers. Even a Tax of 25 per cent. on real property, in the place of forced loans, met with no opposition. d. The Liberty of the Preux, however, was abridged by a decree (Dec. 24, 1799), by placing all the Journals under the surveillance of the Police. A Secret Police, also, independent of the public one under Fouch was organised in Feb. 1800.

174. INTERNAL CIVIL TRANSACTIONS CONTINUED.—a. The measures which Napoleon had passed provoked the enmity of many, and an attempt was made, on Dec. 24, 1800, to assassinate him while on his way to the Opera, by means of an infernal machine. He escaped, but the explosion killed several persons who were near. b. A General Annesty was granted Nov. 26, 1800, with a few exceptions, to all Emigrants who would take the oath of fidelity to the government; when such property of the returned emigrants as had not been sold was restored to them. c. After much negotiation, a Concordat with the Pope was agreed on, in Sept. 1801. In this the Pope sanctioned the sale of Church property which had taken place, suppressed many bisnoprics, confirmed the abolition of the convents, agreed to the payment of the clergy by the State, and settled several matters of discipline. At the same time, the State agreed to pay the stipends of the Protestant Ministers. The Churches which had been closed by the Convention were now re-opened, and Christian Worship allowed to be performed throughout France. The Sabbath was again recognised as a day of rest; the computation by Weeks resumed; and the Law of Decades repealed. The Leyton of Honour, an order of knighthood for distinguished military service and civilians, was instituted by Napoleon, May 19, 1802. On Aug. 2, 1802, Napoleon was declared Consul for Life by a decree of the Senate, which was sanctioned by above 3,500,000 votes of the people. e. A short time after, he appointed a commission of eminent lawyers, under the presidency of Cambachere to draw up a comprehensive digest of the best existing laws, civil, criminal, and commercial. This digest, known as the Civil Code or Code Napoleon, was completed between 1803 and 1808, and continues the Legal Code to this day. f. The Provincial Administration of France was now organised on one uniform plan, and made dependent on the CENTRAL POWER or Executive. Each department was under a Prefect, who was appointed by government; as were also the Mayor o

and twenty others were condemned to death. A. On May 3, 1804, a motion was made in the Tribunate to bestow upon Naroleon the TTLE_OF EMPROR, with the hereditary succession in his family. The resolution of the Tribunate was confirmed by the Senate, and approved by above 3,000,000 registered votes. On May 18, Napoleon assumed the title of Emperor at St. Cloud, and on the following day, issued a decree appointing 18 of his first generals, Marshals of the French Empire. On Dec. 2, 1804, he was crowned Emperor by the Pope at Paris, and on May 28, 1805, crowned king of Italy at Milan by the archbishop of that city. The preceding events show the probable, if not simost certain, result of bloodshed and anarchy in the adoption of a Milliary Despotism.

- 175. Forking and Military Everts, 1799 to 1805.—a. Napoleon, on his becoming First Consul, made proposals of Peace to England, Dec. 25, 1799. But, as the English Government had no confidence in the new order of things, the negotiations ended in nothing, and war was continued. Napoleon afterwards admitted that ne was not sincere in his proposals. France thus continued at war with England, Austria, and Turkey. b. Moreau was appointed over the army of the Bhine acting against Austria; Kleber had been left in command in Egypt; while Napoleon himself assumed the command of the army of Italy. He accordingly repaired to Lausanne, May 18, 1800; and with his army of 36,000 men and 40 pieces of cannon, passed the Great St. Bernard, which had hitherto been considered impracticable for the passage of an army. Descending thence to Aosta, he defeated a small Austrian force at the Ticino, and entered Milan on June 2, 1800, where he was joined by other divisions of his army which had passed by the Simplon and St. Gothard. On June 14 the celebrated battle of Marengo was fought, in which the Austrians, after a hard contest and immense slaughter, were defeated. This led to an armisice between the two armies, which was concluded June 16, 1800. By this, Piedmont and Genoa, with all the fortresses, were surroudered to the French. Napoleon, after having established provisional governments at Milan, Turin, and Genoa, returned to Paris, July 3, where he was received with the greatest enthusiasm.
- c. In Germany, Moreau defeated the Austrians under Kray, at Engen in Baden, May 2, 1800: and again, when commanded by the Archduke John, in the great battle of Hohenlinden in Bavaria, Dec. 3, 1800. After this he was proceeding towards Vienna, when the severe losses which the Austrians had sustained compelled them to make proposals for peace, which ended in the treaty of Lumeritle, 180, 9, 1801.
- d. We must now turn to Egypt.—Previously to Buonaparte's secretly abandoning his army in Egypt, he had appointed Kither to the chief command. The soldiers were highly indignant at having been deserted by Napoleon. Shortly afterwards, the Grand Vizier consented to allow the French to evacuate Egypt and return home with their arms and baggage. But as this arrangement was contrary to the treaty existing between England and Turkey, which required Turkey to consent to no arrangement by which the French did not become prisoners of war, it was set aside by Lord Keith. Upon this, Kleber resumed hostilities, and gained a victory over the Turks at Heliopolis, March 20, 1800. Shortly afterwards, Kleber was nessasinated by a fanatic. On March 1, 1801, Sir Ralph Abercombie anchored in Aboukir Bay; and, disembarking on the 8th, attacked and defeated the French on the same day; and again on the 18th, and for the third time, at Aberandria, where he was mortally wounded, March 21. Afterwards, a Turkish army commanded by British officers gained a victory at Cairo; when the French under Belliard, amounting to 14,000, capitulated, May 22, 1801, and were shortly afterwards conveyed to France. Menou, another general, with 10,000 men, was compelled to surrender at Alexandria, Ag. 31, 1801. These also were conveyed to France, when Egypt being cleared of its invaders was restored to Turkey, and the British troops returned home.
- e. By the treaty of Luneville, Napoleon, being freed from all fears with regard to Austria, bent his attention to the invasion of England. For that purpose, he prepared a numerous fiotilla of gunboats, stationed at Boulogne. Nelson, with a fleet of light vessels, attacked the flotilla on the 16th Aug. 1801; but, owing to the strength of the tide, which threw the English vessels out of order, he was compelled to desist after a desperate conflict of 4 hours. In the meantime, negotiasions were in progress for a Treaty of Peace between all the believenth, France, England, Austria, and Turkey, which, after some monthy delay, was signed at Amiens, Maych 27, 1802. f. By the Treaty of Amiens, Malla; which had been taken from the French by the English, was to be restored to its former possessors, the Knights of St. John; the independence

of the Cisalpine, Batavian, Ligurian, and Helvetic Republics was guaranteed; the Ionian Islands were recognised as a republic; Egypt was restored to the Sultan; the French West India Islands to France, and the Cape of Good Hope to Holland; while England retained Cepton and Trinidad; and the House of Orange was to receive compensation for the loss of Holland. Shortly after the Treaty of Amiens had been signed, Buonaparte sent a fleet and army to reduce Domingo, which had revolted; but this expedition ended in the destruction of the French force and the emancipation of the negroes.

g. On the refusal of England to deliver up Malta till the stipulations of the peace of Luneville had been fulfilled by France, Napoleon threatened war, and dismissed Lord Whitworth, the English Ambassador. Accordingly, on May 18, 1803, England declared war against France, and laid an embarge on some French vessels in her ports. In retaliation for this, Napoleon decreed, May 22, that all the English travelling in France, amounting to above 10,000, should be detained as prisoners of war, and the Rectorate of Hanover, then belonging to the English crown, should be coupled by a French army.

LESSON 88.—THE FIRST FRENCH EMPIRE, 1804 to 1815.

- 176. Home Transactions.—s. The narrative of Napoleon Buonaparte's reign is merely the record of a rapid series of unparalleled and successful aggressions on nearly every country in Europe, planned by a daring and extraordinary military Genius for the aggrandisement of himself and family, and executed through the instrumentality of a vain, populous, and powerful nation. S. On the assumption of the Imperial Dignity by Buonaparte, the titles of Prince, Princess, and Imperial Highness, were conferred on all the members of his family. Napoleon, thoroughly despising the notion of equality, attached great importance to the possession of Titles. Hence, so soon as he had been appointed Emperor, he bestowed upon his principal generals the dignity of Marshat. One of his favourite sayings was—'An Aristocracy is the only true support of a monarchy.' It was, therefore, his determination to supply this defect in the French polity as soon as a suitable opportunity occurred. In accordance withis resolution, he re-established, on March 11, 1806, hereditary titles of Robitity, with incomes attached, derivable from the places from which the titles were taken.
- c. The steady aim of Napoleon's internal Government was the establishment of a Central, Imperial, and Despotic Power, by which all military and naval commanders, all Prefects, Mayors, and Bishops throughout the country should be appointed. The only Deliberative Public Body was the Tribunate, which was early reduced from 100 to 50 members; and, after the Treaty of Tilist, was early reduced from 100 to 50 members; and, after the Treaty of Tilist, was early reduced from 100 to 50 members; and, after the Treaty of Tilist, was finally suppressed by the Senate, Aug. 19, 1807. In its place were appointed three Committees—of Administration, of Legislation, and of Finance. The Censorship of the Press, at the same time, became rigid, extending not merely to journals and periodicals, but to works on every subject. Thus, all freedom of discussion was absolutely prevented. The whole course of Education, too, throughout the country was under the control of a Central Board, consisting of a Grand Master, with numerous high functionaries under him. The kinds of a Grand Master, with numerous high functionaries under him. The kinds of a Grand Master, with numerous high functionaries under him. The kinds of Schools, whether primary or secondary, colleges or lyceums, as well as the subcott taught in them, were all conducted on the principles of strict military Subordination. The Conscriptions, throughout Napoleon's reign, were levid with so much rigour, that the price of a substitute rose at one time to 500L, and was never less than 200L. Thus, nearly all the youth were compelled to servin in the ranks. In 10 years, 2,300,000 conscripts had been raised, of whom 2,200,000 perished in the wars! Though external Commerce was prevented by the vigilance of British Cruisers, in retailation for Napoleon's restrictive Continestia system, yet a great impetus was given to domestic manufactures and internal traffic. Besides, the Jisuder and forced contributions obtained from the subjected states enabled Napoleon to employ thousands of workmen
- On Dec. 16, 1809, Napoleon divorced his wife Josephine; and on March 11, 1800, he married by proxy the Archduchess Maria Louisa, daughter of the Bapearor of Austria.

- 177. FOREIGN AND MILITARY TRANSACTIONS.—During the winter of 1804 and spring of 1805, Napoleon was actively employed in completing his arrangements for invading England, as the great obstructer to the accomplishment of his ambitious projects. The army assembled at Boulogne amounted to 155,000 men, ready to be embarked in 2,293 vessels, of which 1,389 were armed. In addition to this force, two large French and Spanish fleets were secretly prepared at Brest, Rochefort, and Cadis, to repel any attack which might be made by the English Rochefort, and Cadis, to repel any attack which might be made by the English feets. This arrangement, however, was fortunately frustrated; partly by the attack made on the combined fiests by Sir Robert Calder off Cape Finisterre, July 22, 1805, when two Spanish ships were captured, and Villeneuve, the French admiral, compelled to take refuge with the remainder in Ferrol; but more especially by Lord Nelson, who, on Oct. 21, attacked the French fiest under Villeneuve, a few leagues N. W. of Tranzalcas, and gained a glorious victory. This victory annihilated the French and Spanish fleets, and so enraged Napoleon that he henceforth endeavoured to suppress all English trade with the Continent, by forming his celebrated Prohibitive Continental System.
- WAR WITH AUSTRIA, &c.-a. On May, 8, 1805, Napoleon assumed the iron crown of Lombardy at Milan, and, on June 30, incorporated Genoa, Parma, and Placentia with France. These proceedings so excited the alarm and indignation of Austria, that on August 31, 1805, she joined the Third Coalition against France. This coalition consisted of England, Russia, Austria, and Sweden, the two last being subsidised by England. Prussia, though invited, remained neutral, on condition of receiving Hanover from France. On the refusal of Bayaria to join the coalition, the Austrian troops entered Munich Sept. 9, 1805.
- b. Napoleon ordered the troops which had been intended for the invasion of Rngland to assemble at Strasbourg. To this place he himself repaired on Sept. 27, and immediately resumed the command of the Grand Army in person. Mack, who in a former campaign had shown himself an incompetent general, was unfortunately appointed over the great Austrian anny in Germany. The Archduke Charles commanded the Austrians in Italy, and Massena the French. The vast superiority of Napoleon both in plan and execution was soon evident, for, General Mack having allowed himself to be surrounded at Ulm, most disgracefully surrendered with 30,000 men, Oct, 17, 1805. The other Austrian divisions being scattered were unable to make any effectual resistance. The French were everywhere successful, and entered Kenna, Nov. 12, 1805, when they levied enormous contributions. On Dec. 2, 1805, the great battle of AUSTREILTZ in Moravia was fought, between the allied armies of Russia and Austria, commanded by the Emperor Alexander in person, and the French commanded by Napoleon. The armies were nearly equal, about 80,000 each. The Bussians by extending their line too far enabled Napoleon to break through it, and rout the separated divisions in detail. The loss of the allies in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was nearly 30,000 mea. On the day following the Mack, who in a former campaign had shown himself an incompetent general, wounded, and prisoners, was nearly 30,000 mea. On the day following the Emperor of Austria had an interview with Napoleon, when an Armistice was agreed on, by which the Russians were allowed to retire to their own country.
- c. A Treaty of Peace between Austria and France was signed at Presbury, Dec. 26, 1805. By this Treaty, Austria ceded Venetia and Paimatia to the Kingdom of Italy, and Tyrot to Bavaria, and paid a contribution to France of 1,600,000. By this treaty, also, the old Gramania Empires was Dissolven, the Emperor Francis renouncing the title of Emperor of Germany and assuming that of Emperor of Austria. At the same time, the Electors of Bavaria and Wurtemburg were made Kings, while Napoleon placed himself at the head of the smaller States which were formed into the Confederation of the Raine.
- d. The defeat at Austerlitz dissolved, the combined army under the King of Sweden then besieging Hameln in Hanover; the Swedes, and Russians returned to their own country, and the English re-embarked. The King of Naples, however, was less fortunate; for, by having allowed a Russian and English army to land in his dominions, he had broken his neutrality. In consequence of this, Napoleon ordered his general St. Cyr to invade Naples, Dec. 28, 1805, when the King was obliged to seek refuge in Sicily. Napoleon shortly afterwards appointed his brother Joseph king of Naplea and Sicily, April M, 1806; and

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about the same time he made Murat, his brother-in-law, Grand Duke of Cleyes and Berg in Germany. His brother Louis was made King of Holland, on June 5, 1806.

- 179. WAE WITH PRUSSIA, 1806-7.—a. Prussia, who had long been neutral, and had accepted Hanover as the gift of Napoleon, though belonging to England, at length, Oct. 2, 1806, complained of Napoleon's encroachments on Anspach and other places, and demanded the withdrawal of the French troops from Germany. This being refused, the King of Prussia published a manifesto, in which he recapitulated Napoleon's various encroachments, and prepared for war. Napoleon was speedily in the field.
- b. The decisive battle of JEMA in Saxe-Weimar, fought Oct. 16, 1806, prostrated the Prussian monarchy. In this terrible battle, 20,000 Prussians were either killed or wounded, and 40,000 taken prisoners. In a few weeks nearly all the fortified places surrendered, and, on Oct. 21, Napoleon entered Eer-kis, when he exacted contributions to the amount of 6,200,0001; while Gen. Mortier occupied Hamburg and seized the English property there. On Nov. 21, 1806, Napoleon issued his celebrated Berlin Decree, which prohibited all commerce or communications with the British Isles, and confiscated all British Property wherever found. England retailated by declaring France and her subject States under blockade. These prohibitive systems, however, were after a time secretly violated both by Napoleon, who sold Keences at enormous prices, and by the British Government, who sold similar exemptions from the Orders of Council.
- c. After the battle of Jena, the King of Prussia fied to Konigsburg, while the French occupied Warsaw. Napoleon was at this time requested to restore Poland to its independence. At the battle of Pulluut in Poland, Dec. 28, 1806, the French received a severe check from the Russians. At the great battle of Eylaw in Prussia, fought between the Russians and French, Feb. 8, 1807, the contest was indecisive, and the loss on both sides severe, the Russians losing 25,000 men killed or wounded, and the French 39,000. On the 13th of June, 1807, the battle of Friedland, nr. Konigsburg, took place, when the allied Russians and Prussians were defeated by the French after a severe contest. The allies retreated to Tilet on the Niemen, when an Armistice was agreed on, and an interview arranged between the sovereigns. The Emperors Alexander and Napoleon had an interview on a raft on the Niemen, on June 25, 1807; and again on the day following, when the King of Prussia was present. On July 7, 1807, a Treaty of Peace was signed between France and Russia; and on July 9, between France and Prussia. Immediately after signing the Treaty, Napoleon left Tilist for Paris, where he was enthusiastically received, July 27, 1807.
- d. By the Treaty of Their, Prussia was stripped of all her territory West of the Eibe, forming one half of her dominions; compelled to pay a war contribution of 24,000,0004. To which was soon after added a further sum of 5,600,0004.; to surrender her fortresses, which were to be garrisoned by French troops and maintained at her cost till the money was paid. These were hard terms, but they were faithfully observed by the Frussian Government. Prussia was further bound to adopt the French Continental System, close her ports against England, and retain no more than 42,000 troops. Severe as these terms were, they proved the means of originating a series of reforms which afterwards largely contributed to the deliverance of Germany from the galing oyke of France in 1813-14. The forced reduction of the army, too, to 42,000 men silently led to the introduction of the present Prussian Military System which has enabled unted Germany alone, in turn, not only to overthrow the second French Empire, but to recover Alsace and part of Lorraine, and levy exorbitant contributions.
- e. At the Treaty of Tilsit, Russia made no sacrifices, but was allowed to take Finland from Sweden on the promise of closing her ports against England. The Elector of Sazony was made King, and received the newly-formed Duchy of Warsaw. The portions severed from Prussia by this treaty were added to Hesseasel and Brunsnick, which Napoleon had forcibly seized, and formed principally into the new KINGDOM OF WESTPHALIA, which he bestowed on his brother Jerome, who fixed his residence at Cassel, Aug. 18, 1807. The Grand Duchy of Cleess and Berg, bestowed on Murat, comprised other portions torn from

- Prussia. Tuscany was seized by Napoleon in Dec. 1807, and annexed to France; while the Pope, having refused to declare war against England, was deprived of his dominions, carried as a prisoner to France, and not released till the downfall of Napoleon in 1814.
- f. The British Government having received private but positive information, that by a secret article in the Treaty of Thist, Deimark would soon be required to surrender her fiest to France, resolved to prevent the accomplishment of that object. A fiest and army were accordingly sent to Copenhagen to require the surrender of the ships. On this being refused, the city was bembarded for three days, when the Danes consented to surrender their fleet, consisting of 18 ships of the line and 15 frigates, which was taken to England, Sept. 8, 1807. Nothing but the certainty of this secret stipulation between France and Russia could justify the conduct of the British Government on this occasion. The existence, however, of the article was afterwards proved.
- 180. A SECOND WAR WITH AUSTRIA, 1809.—a. Since the termination of the last war in 1805, Austria had remained at peace, but had diligently employed the interval in reconstructing her army and creating a landwehr, or national militia, of 300,000 men. The numerous aggressions of Napoleon, however, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Germany, had excited, especially among the nobility, an intense feeling of hostility against him, and a burning desire to recover those cessions which Austria had in the last war been compelled to make. The Cabinet, therefore, after much hesitation, decided upon once more trying the chance of war, and immediately invaded Lombardy, Tyrol, and Franconia, April 1809.
- b. The Archduke Charles was appointed to the chief command in Germany, and the Archduke John in Italy. Napoleon was at first taken by surprise; but, hastening from Spain, he summoned his forces from different parts, and was soon in a position to assume the command and confront his enemies. On April 20, 1809, he defeated the Austrians under the Archduke Charles at Landshut Bridge over the Iser; and again at Echmuhl in Bavaria, April 22. On the day following he entered Ratiston. Beauharnais, however, was defeated in Italy by the Archduke John, April 16. After the battle of Echmuhl, Napoleon marched to Vienna, which he took May 13. On May 22, the terrible battle of ABFERN, near Vienna, was fought, when the Archduke Charles defeated Napoleon in person, who retreated to the isle of Lobau. In the meanwhile, the brave Tyrolese, always loyal to Austria, rose in a body under Hofer (an innkeeper) and other patriots against the French and Bavarian invaders, and succeeded in expelling them.
- c. After the battle of Aspern, the position of Napoleon was most critical, cooped up in the island of Lobau, which was only $2\frac{1}{4}$ m. by $1\frac{3}{4}$ m. From this perilous situation, however, he extricated himself by a most skilful stratagem, and then fought and won the long-doubtful battle of WAGRAM, nr. Vienna, July 6. In this battle, 25,000 men on each side were killed or wounded. On July 11, an Armistice was agreed upon which led to the Treaty of Schöndnunn, Oct. 14, 1809. Napoleon now levied contributions on Austria to the amount of 9,500,000L, equivalent to 50,000.000L in England. After the battle of Wagram, Tyrol was again invaded and subdued; when Hofer, having been betrayed to the French, Jan. 5, 1810, was carried to Mantus and there shot.
- d. By the Treaty of Schönbrunn, Austria was in a worse position than ever, for she was compelled to cede territories containing 3,500,000 souls, including Gallicia, partly to Russia and partly to the Duchy of Warsaw; Saleburg and the Tyrol to Bavaria; Carniola, Trieste, part of Crossia and Carnishia, Fisme, and other towns to the Kingdom of Italy. The army was to be reduced to 150,000 men; a further contribution of 3,500,0001, was to be levied on the occuried provinces; and all intercourse with England was to be discontinued.
- e. In July 1809, an expedition was fitted out by England to Walcheren, Holland, which proved a great failure from the incompetency of the general.

EBSON 29.—181. Peninsular War, 1807 to 1814. a. The prohibitive Commercial System promulgated by Napoleon in his Berlin Decree was a tyrannical and intolerable interference with the rights of every monarch in his own dominions. For, the infringement of the decree furnished Napoleon with a pretext for immediate invasion, and indicated that the sovereigns of Europe reigned no longer than they were subservient to his will. The Prince Regent of Portugal, though compelled to close his ports against England, his old ally, refused to confiscate the property of the English merchants. Upon this refusal, Junot was ordered to march into Portugal with 30,000 men, Oct. 19, 1807.

b. On Nov. 30, 1807, Junot entered Lisbon without opposition, the Prince Regent and his court having only just before embarked in an English Fleet for Brazil. On Feb. 1, 1808, Napoleon demanded a contribution from the Portuguese of 4,000,0001, which was double the revenue of the whole kingdom, and a contingent of 9,000 men to be sent to France. These demands were obeyed, Junot then occupied several portions of the country, and subjected the inhabitants to shameless spoilations. The subsequent events are mentioned under Spain.

182. Invasion of Spain.—a. Spain had for 10 years been the submissive ally of France, supplying troops and ships; but Napoleon now contemplated annexing the whole peninsula to his empire. By a series of perfidious acts Napoleon had succeeded in getting into his power at Bayonne the King, Charles 4th, the Queen, and Ferdinand, the heir to the throne. By delusive flatteries and gross misrepresentations, he induced the King to resign his crown to 'his friend and ally,' the Emperor of the French, March 1808. Ferdinand the son, however, refused to resign his rights; but, on being told 'he must choose either death or resignation,' he re-luctantly resigned in May following. Napoleon then issued a decree, appointing his brother JOSEPH, then King of Naples, to the crowns of Spain and the Indies, May 1808. By a subsequent decree, July 17, he appointed his cousin Murat to the throne of Naples and Sicily, vacant by the accession of Joseph to the throne of Spain. Indignant at these nefarious transactions, the Spanish people rose at once to vindicate their rights. The great national struggle which thus commenced to expel the French, with the assistance of the English. known as the great Peninsular War, lasted from 1808 to May 1814, when Ferdinand 7th was restored to the throne of his ancestors.

b. The following are the principal Military Events occurring during this period. On March 23, 1808, the French entered Madrid professedly, but deceitfully, as the friends of the King and Queen. Afterwards, when the King, Queen, and Ferdinand had been decoyed to meet Napoleon at Bayonne to settle, as it was alleged, family differences, and the remaining members of the royal family were preparing to leave Madrid for the same place, the dtizens, suspecting treachery, assembled before the royal palace to prevent their departure. The assembly was dispersed by discharges of grape from the cannon of the French. The people immediately flew to arms and cut off several French detachments. The tunnit, however, was soon suppressed; but numerous Spaniards were afterwards tried by courts-martial and shot. This tended to increase the national resentment against the French. At this time nearly all the strongholds were in possession of the French; in addition to this, their forces amounted to 115,000 foot and 16,000 horse. On July 12,1808, Joseph Buonaparte entered Madrid as King of Spains. The mask was now thrown off. Immediately, revolts took place in every province. At Bayleu, in Andalusia, the

French Gen. Dupont, with 20,000 men, was forced to surrender to the insurgents, July 19. On July 30, King Joseph was compelled to evacuate Madrid and retire to Burgos. In the meantime, the Kinglish Government sent an army under Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards DURE OF WELLINGTON) to assist the Portuguese. Wellesley arrived at Mondego Bay, July 30; and on Ang. 20, fought and won the battle of Visiters in Portugal. This victory, however, to the annoyance of Wellesley, was not followed up, owing to the timidity of Sir Harry Burrard, the Commander-in-Chief. On Aug. 23, a Consention was concluded at Cintra which allowed the French army to evacuate Portugal and return to France with their artillery, arms, and baggage. This Convention was severely criticised at the time, and the three generals, Burrard, Wellesley, and Dalrymple were summoned home. On the departure of these generals, the command devolved on Sir John Moore. At the beginning of October, the French forces amounted to 320,000 men, while the operations were directed by Napoleon forces amounted to 220,000 men, while the operations were directed by response himself, who had arrived in Spain. To oppose these, the total amount of Spainish, Portuguese, and English troops did not exceed 110,000 men, poorly clad, ill-disciplined, and widely scattered. Though Moore effected a junction with another force under Sir David Baird, Dec. 20, yet, under such disparity, with another force under Sir David Baird, Dec. 20, yet, under such disparity, with another force under Sir David Baird, Dec. 20, yet, under such disparity, with another force under Sir David Baird, Dec. 20, yet, under such disparity, with another force under Sir David Baird, Dec. 20, yet, under such disparity of the suc of numbers, a retreat towards Corunna became necessary. On Dec. 4, 1808 Napoleon in person recovered Madrid, and restored Joseph to the Spanish throne. About this time, also, he abolished the Inquisition, and suppressed the greater part of the convents.

greater part of the convents.

1809.—On Jan. 1, while at Astorga, Napoleon was informed of the hostile movements of Austria; leaving Spain, therefore, to the management of his generals, he left for Germany. On Jan. 16, the French under Soult were defeated at Corusna in Galicia, by Sir John Moore, who fell mortally wounded. Immediately after this victory, the English troops embarked for home. After the departure of Moore's army the English had only 8,000 men under Gen. Cradock, near Lisbon, in addition to the Portuguese levies, amounting to 20,000 men, paid by England, and commanded by Gen. Bereaford, who had been appointed a Marabal in the Portuguese service. In this year, the French took appointed a Marshal in the Portuguese service. In this year, the French took Ferrol in Spain, Jan. 37; Saragossa, after a siege of 2 months, on Feb. 21; Oporto in Portugal, Feb. 29; Cordons, Seville, and Gerona in December. On April 22, 1809, Sir Arther Wellesey, having been appointed Commander-inchied, returned with fresh troops and landed at Lisbon. On May 12, he crossed the Douro, though opposed by Soult, whom he compelled to retreat. On July 27, he fought and won the battle of Tulseers in Spain; the remainder of the year he spent in organishing and drilling his British forces and the Portuguese levies, and in constructing the formidable LINES of TORREN-VERDAS, 27 miles from Lisbon. These famous intrenohments presented three distinct lines of defence, one within the other, each fortified by redults and guns and two outputs.

Lason. These ramous intranoments presented three distance lines of defence, one within the other, each fortified by redoubts and guns, and the outermost extending for nearly 27 miles in circuit.

1810.—During this year, Napoleon, whilst leaving in Spain above 880,000 men, poured into Portugal above 125,000 troops. Wellington, on the other hand, having no confidence in the Spanish Generals nor in their troops, was hand, having no confidence in the Spanish Generals nor in their troops, was compelled to rely solely on the British and Portuguese levies. Of these he had 25,000 British and 30,000 Portuguese regulars, and as useful auxiliaries for partisan warfare, 30,000 militis. Granada and Malaga surrendered to the French in Jan. 1810; Ciudad-Rodrigo and Almeida in July. Cadis, the last refuge of the Spanish Junta, was preserved partly by the energy of the Duke D'albuquerque and partly by the arrival of some British troops, Feb. 23. On Sept. 27, Massena was repulsed by Wellington at Busaco on the Mondego; and again in Nov. 14, before the Lines of Torres-Vedras.

1811—11 this war, the position of King Joseph had become as uppleagant

again in Nov. 18, before the Laws of Torres reards.

1811.—In this year, the position of King Joseph had become so unpleasant that he offered to resign his crown to Napoleon, and was with difficulty persuaded to retain it. Marshal Victor was defeated by Graham at Barross near Cadia, March 5, 1811; Massens by Wellington at Fuentes de Onero near Ciudad-Rodrigo, May 5; and Soult by Gen. Beresford at Albuera, May 16. Tarrogons, however, was taken by Suchet After a long siege, June 29.

1812.—Wellington, for the first time, was now enabled to assume the offense sould be supported by States. The Sould States of the S

He took Ciudad-Rodrigo, Jan. 19; Badajos, April 6; defeated Marnn chain. He door Custade-Rouryd, Sain 19; Bacagor, April c; ceneral 11; and compelled the French to raise the stege of Cadis, Aug. 26. Having been appointed (in Sept. 22) Generalisatine of the Spanish armies, Wellington occupied the winter in re-organising and drilling the troops to reader them more

1813.—The pastion of King Joseph again became most critical, as insur-rections were spreading in every direction, so that he was compelled to evacasts Madrid in June 1813. Wellington, commencing his march from the river coa

in Portugal, May 22, defeated the French at Vittoria under King Joseph, June 21, when he obtained an immense booty; routed Soult at the Pyrenees, July 28; took St. Sebastian, Aug. 31; forced the passage of the Bidasoa, between France and Spain; entered France, Oct. 8, 1813; gained the battle of St. Jean de Luz in France, Nov. 9; and the battle of the Neve, Dec. 10, 1818.

1814.—Wellington defeated South at Bayonne, Feb. 25; and again at Toulouse, April 10. Shortly afterwards, the entrance of the Allies into Paris put an end to the war and the reign of Napoleon. Ferdinand 7th was now restored to the throne of his ancestors, and entered Madrid, May 14, 1814. In these Peninsular Campaigns, the French lost upwards of 250,000 men; and the Spaniards and Doutherson the addition and research as well well. Portuguese, in soldiers and peasants many more.

LESSON 90.—183. RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN, AND CLOSE OF NAPO-LEON'S REIGN, 1812-14. a. At the commencement of 1812, Napoleon was in the plenitude of his power; France, Belgium, Holland, and Northern and Central Italy were under his immediate sway; while Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and the countries included in the Confederation of the Rhine, with Denmark, Saxony, Prussia, Austria, and Naples, were in close alliance with him. No sovereign since Charlemagne possessed half the power which he then had; his rule, however, was severe and exclusive, admitting no deviation from his imperious will. The Grand Duchy of Warsaw, created by Napoleon, had always been disliked by Alexander, Emperor of Russia, and had been the cause of great shyness between him and Napoleon since 1810. In addition to this, Russia had suffered much from an adherence to Napoleon's continental system, which Alexander was determined to alleviate. He accordingly published a Ukasse in Dec. 1810, allowing colonial and other goods to be imported into Russia. This gave great offence to Napoleon. At length, the French having wantonly seized, in Jan. 1812, the island of Rugen, then belonging to Sweden, Bernadotte, the Crown Prince of Sweden, formed an alliance with Alexander in March, 1812. Upon this, Napoleon resolved on the subjugation of Russia, and immediately concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, and the other members of the Confederation of the Rhine, by which he raised an immense army of 500,000 men, exclusive of what he had in Spain and Portugal.

b. With this immense force, divided into three great masses, he commenced the war. One of these great divisions, consisting of upwards of 200,000 men, and called the Grand Army, being commanded by Napoleon in person, crossed the Niemen, June 23, 1812; the Russians retiring and laying waste the country as the French advanced. At length, after the hard-fought battles of Mohilow, Tuly 22, Buldeth, 1912, 18 Smith, Arm 12, and Recorder Sept. 7, in all of the Control of as the French savanced. At length, after the hard-fought battles of Monton, July 23; Polotsk, July 31; Smolenako, Aug. 19; and Borodino, Sept. 7, in all of which the Russians were defeated, the French entered Moscow, where they intended wintering, Sept. 14, 1812. Scarcely, however, had Napoleon taken possession of the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the Czars, when the city was discovered to be on fire in numerous places. Soon the greater part of the city was reduced to a heap of ruins. In this extremity, Napoleon sent proposals to Alexander which were rejected. At last, on the 18th of October, seeing no channel neares, while his army was now reduced to '108,000 effective men, he come of neace, while his army was now reduced to '108,000 effective men, he come of peace, while his army was now reduced to 105,000 effective men, he commenced his retreat, the most disastrous recorded in history. Of the mighty force which had invaded Russia, above 400,000 perished or were made prisoners, and only 80,000 reached France; while the author of this unparalleled misery and destruction, basely left his army under Murat at Smorgoni in Poland, Dec. 5; and, travelling in disguise with one companion in a sledge, arrived in Paris, on Dec. 18, 1812.

c. On Napoleon's return to Paris, Dec. 1812, he raised by fresh conscriptions an army of 350,000 men, ready to take the field in the spring of 1813. In the meantime, however, a great change had taken place throughout Germany; the

Russians were everywhere received as deliverers. The King of Prussia, Frederick William, had thrown off his constrained alliance with France, and concluded the treaty of Kalikch, March 1, by which an alliance, offensive and defensive, was formed with Russia. On March 3, Sweden joined the alliance, offensive and defensive, was formed with Russia. On March 3, Sweden joined the alliance. Both Prussia and Sweden had received the promise of a subsidy from England. Austria, for the present, remained neutral, and offered mediation. Most of the German fortresses were still occupied by the French; besides this, several corps were distributed along the Eibe. The allied army of Russians and Prussians at this time amounted only to 120,000 men, but was receiving accessions every day. Napoleon left Paris on the 15th of April, and joined his army at Erywin in Prussian Saxony, April 25, and on the 29th effected a junction with the Viceroy Eugene, at Merseburg. At Lutzen, 9 miles from Merseburg, Napoleon encountered the allies, May 2; and, after a hard-fought battle, compelled them to retreat with a loss of 15,000 men; his own loss was 13,000 men. On May 8, he entered Dresden and remained there 10 days. A second great battle took place at Bautsen in Saxony, when the allies, after two days hard fighting, May 21, 22, were compelled to retreat with the loss of 15,000 men, while the French to 20,000. After this battle, Napoleon consented, June 4, to the armistice of Plessits, for 6 weeks. Austria immediately endeavoured to mediate on the following basis:—'The dissolution of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, the independence of Hamburg and the Hanse Towns, the restoration of Prussia to tis former limits, and of Trieste and Illyria to Austria, Napoleon consented to give up the Duchy of Warsaw, to yield Illyria but without Trieste; but, on the other hand, he required the extension of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, the independence of Hamburg and the Hanse Towns, the restoration of the Rhine to the Odder, and that the King of Saxony should be ind

- d. Napoleon, on his arrival at Paris, found the country much dissatisfied, and wearied with repeated exactions. The Legislative Body remonstrated, which gave so much offence that he adjourned it. In the meantime, the allies following up their successes, approached the Rhine, and sent a proposal to Napoleon from Frankfort, Nov. 9, stating the terms on which they would treat; namely, that France should be restricted within its natural limits—the Alps, Pyrenees, and the Rhine; that Spain and Portugal should be restored to their former sovereigns, and the independence of Germany and Italy secured under their native princes. Napoleon rejected these terms, which were his last chance. On this refusal, the allies cressed the Rhine at Manheim and other places, Dec. 31, 1818, and entered France.
- c. In 1814, after several engagements, an armistice was agreed on, Feb. 24; but, as Napoleon's demands were still inadmissible, the negotiations were broken off, and hostilities resumed. The French were defeated in several engagements, the last of which was at Paria, March 80, 1814, when the city captulated, and the allies entered it on the day following. A provisional Government was immediately formed, with Talleyrand at the head. This passed an act which formally 'dethroned the emperor and absolved the Senate and people from their allectiance.' At length, Napoleon most reluctantly signed his abdication at Fontainchicau, April 11. He was allowed by the allied sovereigns to retain the title of Emperor, with the sovereignty of the lale of Elba, and a revenue of 4,500,000 francs, to be paid by France. Napoleon left Fontaincheau on April 20, and arrived at Elba, May 4, 1814. In the meanwhile, the Bourbon

dynasty was restored in the person of Louis 18ta, who entered Paris May 8, 1814. By the Treaty of Peace signed in Paris, May 80, 1814, France was reduced to the limits of 1792, with the exception of Avignon and the Venasisn, which were now included in it. To quote the words of Sir Archibald Alison on this occasion, 'Not a village was reft from old France, not a palace or museum was rified, even the spoils of Italy, Germany, Spain, and other places, were left untouched; so far from initating Napoleon in selsing every article of value, the allies did not even reclaim their own.'

J. Napoleon remained in Hiba about 10 months. On Feb. 26, 1815, being determined to recover his throne, he embarked with about 1,000 men of his old quard, and landed March 1, at Uannes, nr. Frejus. His march to Paris was a triumphant one, being everywhere joined by his old army. Marchal Ney, who had been sent to stop his progress, went over to him; while Louis 18th, being abandoned by the troops, was compelled to leave Paris, March 19; and on the day following. Napoleon entered the Tuileries. The allies, who were then assembled at Vienna, on being informed of his return, immediately resolved on joining their forces to frustrate his efforts. In the meanwhile, Napoleon, with his wonted vigour, used every means to raise a force adequate to his present exigency; and, early in June, an army of 220,000 men was ready to take the field. Finding it, however, impossible to govern with the unlimited power which he formerly had, he at the outset granded a constitution to the country, which was published April 22, and solemnly accepted by him at the meeting of the Champ de Mai, june 1, 1815. On June 12, he left Paris to join the army concentrated near Philippeville, and amounting to 125,000 men. Crossing the Belgian Frontier on the 15th, he defeated on the 16th at Linguish at Quatre-Bras. On June 18, 1815, Napoleon attacked Wellington's army on the FIELD of WATERLOO, where he suffered a signal defeat. The loss of the French in this memorable battle was at least 40,000 men; that of the English 15,000; of the Prussians 7,000. In this battle Napoleon had 7,900 men, all French; Wellington had 67,600, of whom only 22,000 were British; the rest were Belgians, Dutch, Hanoverians, Brunswickers, &c. This second abdication in favour of his son Napoleon fied to Paris, and signed his second abdication in favour of his son Napoleon fied to Paris, and signed his second abdication in favour of his son Napoleon fied to Paris, and signed his second abdication in favour of his son Napoleon fied to Paris, and signed his second abdication in f

g. Napoleon, finding it impossible to escape the British cruisers, went on board Capt. Mattiand's ship, the Bellerophon, July 15, saying:—'I place myself under the protection of your prince and your laws.' On July 31, he was informed that the British Government had decided that the island of 8t. Helena should be his future residence, to which place he was immediately conveyed, and where he arrived Nov. 16, 1815. The custody of his person was entrusted by the allies to England; at the same time, commissioners were appointed by Russia, Austria, and France, to reside at St. Helena to secure his safe detention. Napoleon was far from being happy in his exile. The reminiscences of his former greatness, the impossibility of ever recovering his liberty, the constant but necessary military surveillance to which he was subject, added to his naturally restless disposition, rendered him discontented and querulous, which tended to irritate an hereditary malady of which his father had died, a cancer in the stomach. He died May 5, 1821, in the midst of a violent storm of wind and rain, which reminded him of the roar of bettle. His last words were—"The Carmde," head of the army. In his will he left large bequests to his friends and attendants. Among these bequests was one of 10,000 france to a villain who had recently attempted the life of the Duke of Wellington. How different this conduct was to that of Wellington at Waterloo. "There's Bonsparre, Sir,' exclaimed an artillery officer. 'I think I can reach him, may I fire?' 'No, no,' replied the Duke, 'Generals commanding armies have something else to do than to shoot at one another.' (Gleig's 'Life of Wellington,' p. 267.) Napoleon's body was interred in Slane's Valley, St. Helena, May 8, in the military dress he had usually worn, and accompanied with military honours. Afterwards, at the request of the French Government, it was transferred to Paris, and deposited in the Church of the Invalides, Dec. 15, 1840.

h. By the Congress of Vianna, Nov. 1815, the *Limits* of France were restricted to what they were in 1792. Seventeen frontier and fortified towns were to be garrisoned by the allies for 5 years, and 150,000 troops were to be maintained at

the cost of France for the same time, as an army of occupation, under Wellington, and an indemnity of 61,000,000L was to be paid to the allies. It was further enacted, that all the works of art plundered by the French from other countries, should be restored to their original owners.

LESSON 91.—RESTORATION OF THE BOURBONS, 1814 to 1848.

- 184. Louis 187H, 1814 to 1824. a.—On the deposition of Napoleon, Louis 18th (Count de Provence, brother of Louis 16th, and uncle of the child who died in prison, usually called Louis 17th) ascended the throne of his ancestors as a Constitutional Monarch. He entered Paris, May 3, 1814, while the allied sovereigns were assembled there; on May 14, he appointed a New Ministry, and on Aug. 3, a new Council of State.
- b. The Charter of the New Constitution, adapted to a Limited Monarchy, was promulgated June 4, 1814, to the Senate and Legislative Body. This contained the *Essentials* of real Freedom—namely, personal freedom, equality of all Frenchmen in the eye of the law, and in the obligation to the payment of taxes, right of being taxed only by the national representatives, trial by Jury, the free exercise of Religion, liberty of the press, security of property, oblivion of the past, and suppression of the conscription.

The Executive Power was vested in the King, whose person was declared to be inviolable, and his ministers alone responsible. The King had the 'right of making war and peace, of appointing officers of the state, navy and army, and of making all ordinances necessary for the execution of the laws and safety of the state. The Legislative Power consisted of the King and two chambers of Parliament; an Upper or House of Peers; and a Lower or Chamber of Deputies, chosen by electoral colleges The qualification of a Deputy was—the annual payment of 42l. in direct taxes and being turned 40 years of age; the qualification of an Elector was the payment of 12l. yearly in taxes. The Code Napoleon continued the Law of France; the old and the new Nobility preserved their Titles; and the Legion of Honour was retained.

- c. The transition, however, from the Imperial and Military Rule to that of a settled and constitutional one, had many difficulties to encounter. The army had been so long accustomed to war and the rewards which awaited a successful career as to be much dissatisfied with the altered state of things; while the people, from the exhausted state of the finances, and the additional taxation necessarily imposed upon them, felt the burdens oppressive. Numerous conflicting interests also required investigation and prudence to be reconciled or compromised; the furious passions exatted by a long series of violent changes required time to be calmed; while some provision had to be made for the multitudes left destitute by the termination of the wars. In this unsettled state of things, Napoleon unfortunately returned from Ribs; and, after his second expulsion, left matters much worse. For the former difficulties were increased and fresh ones created; while several persons who had hitherto been spared, having recently either proved treacherous, or had accepted office during the Hundred Days, were either banished or otherwise severely punished.
- d. In 1818, the Allies consented to the withdrawal of their troops from France during the year, and also to a mitigation of the Indemnity to be paid to them. Both these measures were carried out. Immediately afterwards, France was admitted into the Alliance of the Great European Powers. After the Congress of Vienna, the evils which had been inflicted upon the Continental Nations by the exercise of Democratic Principles induced several, if not all the Sovereigns,

¹ Persons desirous of reading the details of the eventful period of French History from 1789 to 1830, may consult with advantage the following:—Sir Archibald Albawa's 'Epitome of the History of Europe;' or his larger work in 4 vols, 'France and its Revolutions,' by George Long, Esq.: and for France in general, Maunders' 'Treasury of History,' edited by the Rev. G. W. Cox.

to restrict in some measure the Liberty of their Subjects, as well as the License of the Press. France having, in 1818, become a member of the Alliance, adopted a similar course; hence, in 1819, a new Election Law was proposed and carried, which gave a preponderance to the rich Landowners in the election of the Deputies. At the same time, several laws were emacted, probably from necessity, restricting personal liberty and the liberty of the press. These infractions of the Charter led to angry discursions in the French Chambers, and bitter oppositions among the people. In Feb. 1830, the Duke of Berri, second son of Charles 19th, was assassinated. In 1833, a Revolution having taken place in Spain against the despotism of Ferdinand 7th, an army of 100,000 men was sent by France to put it down. The invasion was successful, and Ferdinand was restored to his former power. In Sept. 1824, Louis 18th died, having reigned 9 years after his restoration.

- 185. CHARLES 10TH, 1824 to 1839. a.—CHARLES 10TH, brother of Louis 18th, and formerly Count d'Artois, succeeded, Sept. 16, 1824, declaring his intention to observe the Constitution. His coronation took place at *Rheims*, May 1826, when he took the oath to govern according to the Charter. It was, however, soon apparent that Charles was more desirous of governing as an absolute Monarch than as a Constitutional one, and was more influenced by the Jesuits than was consistent with the observance of his coronation oath.
- b. Of the various Political Parties which agitated the country at this period, the following are the principal:—

1. The Ultra-Royalist and Jessitical Party which aimed at restoring the Mon-

archy and Church to their former position and power.

- 2. The Constitutionalists professed an adherence to the principles of the Charter. This party included the more intelligent, steady, and wealthy persons in the community. The Liberals were a section of this party, with a strong leaning towards democracy.
- towards democracy.

 3. The Democrats adopted and advocated principles and modes of action, not for their soundness or suitableness to promote the welfare of the country, but for their likeliness to secure the popular favour towards themselves.
- 4. The Revolutionists were turbulent men, impelled by headstrong passion to seise the property of others through sudden and violent commotions, instead of procuring a livelihood by steady honest industry.
- c. Charles and his ministers soon found excuses for restricting the liberty of the press and suppressing several journals for advocating democratic principles or measures opposed to the court party. These restrictions incurred much dissatisfaction, which was increased by disbanding the National Guard in Paris, in 1896. The appointment of Prince Polignac, an Ultra-Royalist, to be Prince Minister, in Aug. 1829, was another cause of great discontent, as it indicated the King's decided partiality to the Jesuits and Priests. In May 1830, an armament was sent out against the Dey of Algier, in consequence of a gross insult which he had offered to the French Consul. The city of Algiers was soon taken, and the Dey sent as prisoner to Italy. Shortly afterwards, a large district of the surrounding country was subdued and annexed to France, to which it has ever since belonged.
- d. On July 25, 1830, Charles, by the advice of his minister, Polignac, passed three deepotic Ordinances which were violations of the Constitutional Charter. The First dissolved the newly-elected Chamber of Deputies before it had assembled; the Second changed the Law of Elections, and distranchised the great body of Electors; the Third subjected the Press to severe restrictions. The publication of these Ordinances caused a REVOLUTION, followed by three days fighting in the streets of Paris, July 27, 28, 29. On July 31, a deputation was sent by the assembled Peers and Deputies to the Duke of Orleans, Louis-Philippe, then residing at Neuilly, inviting him to allow himself to be appointed Lieutenant-General of the Kingdom, which, after some hestiation, he accepted. This appointment was also confirmed by the King himself. On Aug. 2, Charles 10th abdicated in favour of his grandson, Henri, duke of Bordeaux (sometimes styled Count de Chambord), son of the late Duke of Berri; but, or Aug. 6, the Chamber of Deputies rejected this abdication, and declared the throne of France eccess. After having made some alterations in the Charter, the Assembly offered the crown to Louis-Philippe, as King of the French, who,

after some consideration, accepted it; and, on the 9th, took the prescribed Constitutional Oath.

Charles 10th was permitted to leave the Kingdom without molestation. He embarked for England, and resided for some time at Holyrood House, Edinburgh, where he died Nov. 6, 1886.

- 186. Louis-Philippe, 1830 to 1848. a.—Louis-Philippe, Duke of Orleans, was the eldest son of the notorious Duke of Orleans, commonly called Philippe Egalité, cousin of Louis 16th. He was born in Paris, 1773; commanded a troop of dragoons under Kellermann in 1791; and, on the execution of his father, escaped to Switzerland, then travelled through various parts of Europe and America. In 1800, he settled at Twickenham, near London; thence, in 1807, he visited Naples; and, in 1809, married Amelis, second daughter of the King, when he settled at Palermo till 1815. At the restoration, he removed to Neuilly, on the Seine, France, where he remained till the expulsion of Charles 10th, when, principally through the influence of Lafayette, he ascended the throne as King of the French, Aug. 19, 1830.
- b. After the accession of Louis-Philippe, the country continued for some time in an agitated state, when several political riots (or émeutes), originated by the red republicans, occurred in different places. The King, therefore, with the intention of conciliating the different parties, made a tour through the country, and was everywhere received with enthusiasm. In the meantime, the exministers, Polignac, Peyronnet, and two others, were tried in the palace of the Luxembourg, and condemned to perpetual imprisonment. Among the disquisided men who held the premierabil during the reign of Louis-Philippe may be mentioned Lagitte, the banker, in 1830; Casimir Perier, in 1831-2; Soult, 1832-4; Thiers, in 1836-6; Guitos, in 1840-48. It was in the administration of M. Thiers, that a war would have occurred between France and England respecting the Pasha of Egypt, had not the firmness of Louis-Philippe prevented it.
- c. Barly in this reign the Censorship of the Press, imposed by Charles, was removed, Libels were to be tried by jury, and hereditary peerage was, after much opposition, abolished. This last measure, however, has been frequently condemned. In 1834 a formidable outbreak occurred among the workmen at Lyons, which required military interference to be suppressed. On July 28, 1838, an attempt was made on the life of Louis-Philippe, while reviewing the national guards, by a villain named Fieschi, with an infernal machine, by which the wretch himself was wounded, and Marshal Mortier and some other persons killed. The King and his sons providentially escaped unhurt; Fieschi was soon after executed. This and several subsequent attempts on the King's life furnished grounds for again restricting the liberty of the people. On Oct. 29, 1836, Louis Napoleon, atterwards Emperor, foolishly attempted an insurrection at Strasbourg. He was captured and banished to America. In 1837, Prince Polignac and the other ex-ministers were released from Ham and banished from France.
- d. By the advice of M. Thiers, the fortification of Paris was decided upon. The work was begun in 1840 and completed in 1844. At the request of the French Government, the remains of Napoleon let were removed from St. Helena and deposited in the church of the Invalides at Paris, May 1840. In 1840, Mchemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, who had for several years attempted to throw off his allegiance to Turkey, received, this year, direct encouragement from Thiers's administration to carry out his design. This was strongly condemned by England, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, and Louis-Philippe, to preserve peace, dismissed Thiers from the administration. The Pasha obtained the hereditary viceroyship for his family, but, with allegiance to Turkey. Guicot was appointed Prime Minister in the place of Thiers, Oct. 1840. In Aug. 1840, Louis Napoleon, who had returned from America, made a second attempt to overturn the French Government, and landed at Boulogne with a few followers. He was again captured and sentenced to imprisonment for life at Ham, from which he afterwards escaped in 1846. On July 18, 1842,

the Duke of Orleans, eldest son of the King, was accidentally killed by a fall from his carriage. In 1843, Queen Victoria visited Louis-Phillippe and his family at the Château d'Eu. Though the city of Algiers and the surrounding country had been conquered by the French in 1880, the Arab tribes in the interior remained unsubdued under their brave and active chief, Abd.el-Kadr, who uncessingly harassed the French troops, and, when defeated, took refuge in Morocco. This led to a war with Morocco, which began in May 1844, and ended in Sept. of the same year, on the submission of the Emperor of Morocco and his promise to exclude Abd.el-Kadr from the Moorish territory. After a protracted struggle, Abd.el-Kadr nimself surrendered to Gen. Lamoricière in 1847. Algeria is said to havé cost the French 40,000,000£. and the loss of 300,000 men. In 1843, the French forcibly took possession of Tahiti.

- e. In 1846, Louis-Philippe was anxious to affiance his family to that of Spain, and yet to avoid violating the old treaty which forbed the union of the crowns of France and Spain under one sovereign. He therefore contrived that the young Queen of Spain should marry her cousin, the Duke of Cadiz, while the Infanta should marry his son, the Duke of Monipensier. By this means, he hoped that the crown of Spain would ultimately be worn by one of his descendants. Much public indignation was expressed at this proceeding.
- f. In 1847, several public exposures were made of the disgraceful corruption prevalent in all the public departments, by which high offices had been sold, and privileges granted for money. These disclosures created a party who were desirous of effecting a moderate Reform in the Chambers by the extension of the Suffrage, and the correction of ministerial malpractices. For, at this period, the Suffrage, and the correction of ministerial malpractices. For, at this period, the Franchise was confined to makes above 25 years of age, who paid direct taxes to the amount of 81, yearly, so that the whole body of electors amounted only to 240,000 out of a population of 86,000,000. Of the 450 leputies returned to the Assembly, 204 were placemen in the pay of government. At the opening of the Chambers in Dec. 1847, the King, in his speech, designated the Reform Agitation as a 'blind hostility' to the government. This led to several angry discussions, and the announcement by the advocates of reform of their intention to celebrate a Reform Banquet early in Jan. 1848. The Banquet was, however, postponed from time to time, and, finally abandoned on its being prohibited by the government. Odlilon Barrot, however, in the Chamber of Deputies, presented on Feb. 22, 1848, several articles of impeachment against Fouries and the other ministers. Upon this, Guizot on the following day announced the resignation of himself and his colleagues, and, on the same day, the King appointed Barrot and Thiers to form a new cabinet, which they promised to do. The appointment, unfortunately, came too late to atem the tide of political opposition now set in. The King lost his usual presence of mind and prudence. He abdicated in favour of his grandson, the young Count de Paris, under the regency of his mother, the Duchess of Orleans. The Duches inmediately went to the Chambers, accompanied by her son and the Dukes immediately went to the Chambers, accompanied by her son and the Dukes of Nemours and Montensier, to introduce her child as their king and

LESSON 92.—THE SECOND REPUBLIC, 1848 to 1852.

187a. On the flight of Louis-Philippe, Feb. 26, 1848, a REPUBLIC was once more proclaimed on the old basis of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity, when, as formerly, 'trees of liberty' were planted. A Provisional Government was immediately appointed, not by any orderly-constituted assembly of experienced men, but by mob acclamation. The members thus appointed were Dupont de l'Eure, Lamartine, Ledru Rollin, Cremieux, Arago, Carnot, Marie, Gen. Cavaignac, and Garnier Pages; with Marrast, Louis Blanc, Flocon, and Albert as secretaries. Few of these were fitted for their high

position, while several of them were violent partisans and opposed to their colleagues.

- b. In addition to this medley in the Provisional Government, there were several dangerous Combinations in active operation, as the Red-republicans, and Socialists or Communists. The Red-republicans (so named from using the old red cap of liberty as their badge, as it had been of the anarchists of the first revolution) held preposterous views, which led them to desire a parition of property and a re-organisation of a reign of terror. It was with difficult that Lamartine's influence could keep these wretches in check. The Socialists taythst that it was the duty of government to provide employment for all classes of workmen and pay them wasges, so that, on this principle, workmen would have to depend on government and not on their own forethought and exertions. To carry out these views NATIONAL WORKSHOPS were opened, where two france per day were given to every fresh comer. The idle and ignorant were thus placed on a level with the industrious and skifful, obviously the reverse of what should be. By this scheme so many were attracted to the capital as to become dangerous. For these men, secure of their pay, formed themselves into violent Clubs which originated numerous fêtes, processions, and holidays, calculated to engender every kind of discorder. Apprehending some convulsion from this state of things, the rich either hid their money, or left the city, while equipages and luxuries were abandoned. Trade was for a time prostrated, and most of the tradesmen were ruined. From actual experiments it was proved, that a master who paid fair wages to his workmen, according to their skill and industry, and retained a profit for himself, could produce better work and as a cheaper rate than what was done at the National Workshops.
 - c. On May 4, 1848, a new National Assembly was elected, chosen by Universal Suffrage, and (notwithstanding the exertions of the Red-republicans and Socialists to the contrary) the majority of the members were men of moderate views. By this assembly, a new Executive Council was appointed, consisting of Lamartine, Dupont de l'Eure, Arago, Garnier-Pages, Marie, Ledru Rollin, and Cremieur. The secretaries were Louis-Bianc, Flocon, Albert, and Marrast. On the refusal of the Assembly to appoint a Minister for the National Workshops, an outbreak of the workmen took place on May 15, when the rioters attacked the Assembly, but were repulsed by the National Guard, and the leaders thrown into prison, on this occasion, Louis Bianc was expelled from the Assembly. On June 13, Louis Napoleon was elected a member of the National Assembly, but did not take his seat till Rept. 26.
 - d. In June, the labourers in the National Workshops had increased from 13,000 to 120,000, so that the government became alarmed, and ordered 30,000 of those who had come from a distance to return home. This immediately excited a formidable insurrection of the Red-republicans, when numerous barricades were erected in the city, June 23, 1948. In this emergency, the government appointed Gen. Cavaignac Dictator. After three days fighting, June, 24, 5, 6, with the loss of 16,000 persons killed or wounded, and 8,000 made prisoners, the insurgents surrendered. On the suppression of the insurrection, Cavaignac resigned the dictatorship, but was immediately appointed chief of the executive, June 28,
 - e. Afterwards, the National Assembly drew up a new Constitution, by which the Legislative Power was to be voted in a single Chamber, consisting of 750 members elected by universal suffrage for 3 years. The Executive was to be vested in a President elected for 4 years by Universal Suffrage. The National Representatives were to receive 25 francs per day, and the President a yearly salary of 800,000 francs. On Nov. 4, the new Constitution was solemnly promulgated. The next important measure which occupied the attention of the nation was the appointment of the first President of the Republic. Of several candidates, Louis Napoleon obtained 5,887,000 votes; Cavaignae 1,474,000; Lectur-Rollin 381,000; and Lamartine 21,000. Louis Napoleon was therefore elected President, Dec. 11, and proclaimed Dec. 20, when he took the prescribed oath to observe the Constitution.
 - f. Of the various parties composing the present national Assembly, whether Legitimists (adherents of the elder royal branch), Orleanists, Buonapartists, or Republicans, none appear to have consulted the true interests of their country irrespectively of party considerations. For, instead of combining to place the liberties of the people on a sound basis, to develope the resources of the country, and to modify the system of centralisation, they all seemed intent on consulting

mere party aggrandisement, and thus keeping the nation in 'unabated excitement and continual revolution.' Whilst the members of the Assembly were thus eagerly endeavouring to extend the influence of their respective parties, their President was equally bent on extending his own. For, on Dec. 2, 1881, Louis Napoleon, under the pretext of national necessity, effected his well-known Cour D'ETAT, or violent change of state policy. By this act, universal suffrage was established, the Legislative Assembly dissolved, above 180 of its members arrested and confined, of whom Thiers, Cavaignac, and Changarnier were sent to the Castle of Vincennes, and Paris declared in a state of slege and occupied by troops. During two days, sanguinary conflicts took place in Paris, but the regular troops ultimately prevailed, and secured submission to the new order of things. Shortly after this, Napoleon made a tour through various parts of the country, when he was everywhere received with enthusiasm. On Dec. 21, 1851, he was declared Prince President for 10 years by 7,475,000 votes against 641,000; and on Jan. 1, 1852, was solemnly installed at Notre Dame, Paris.

g. On Jan. 9, 1852, Changarnier, Lamoriciere, and 83 members of the late Legislative Assembly were banished from France, while 575 other persons who had resisted the Coup of Elsa were transported to Cayenne. At the same time, the inscription Liberty, Equality, and Praternity, was ordered to be erased throughout France; and the 'Three OF LIBERTY' were everywhere hewn down and burnt.

On Nov. 4, Napoleon announced the contemplated restoration of the Empire, and ordered that the people should be consulted on the change. On Nov. 21, the Votes given in favour of the Empire were 7,824,000; against it only 255,000. On Dec. 2, 1862, the anniversary of the Coup d'Etat, the Prince President was declared EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH, when he assumed the title of NAPOLEON SED. Thus, the Republic for the second time sunk under an IMPERIAL DIGTATOR.

LESSON 926.—THE SECOND FRENCH EMPIRE, 1852 to 1870.

188a. Charles Louis Napoleon, born at the Tuileries, Paris, April 20, 1808, was the third son of Louis Buonaparte, brother of Napoleon 1st, formerly King of Holland, and of Queen Hortense, daughter of Josephine, by her first husband, Viscount Beauharnais. On the downfall of Napoleon 1st, he was educated at Arenenberg. Switzerland, and then at the Grammar School at Augsburg; studied military science at Thun, Switzerland; took part in the revolt of the Carbonari in the Pontifical States, March, 1831; attempted an insurrection at Strasbourg, Aug. 1836, was captured and then exiled to America; returned to Europe in Sept. 1837; was present at the death of his mother in Oct. 1837, went to London in 1838, whence he landed at Boulogne with 55 followers to raise an insurrection, Aug. 6, 1840, but was captured and sentenced to imprisonment for life in the citadel of Ham, whence he escaped on May 25, 1846, into Belgium, thence into England, where he remained until the Paris Revolution of 1848. Soon after this event, he was elected by 5 departments a Representative of the National Assembly; took his seat Sept. 21, 1848; was elected President of the Republic for 4 years Dec. 10, 1848. He now attached the army to his interest; visited Ham, where he expressed his contrition for his attempts at Strasbourg and Boulogne; effected his Coup d'Etat on Dec. 2, 1851, when he imprisoned every statesman and general in Paris of known ability, dissolved the Assembly, and assumed the Dictatorship for 10 years; made a conciliatory tour through the provinces, and shortly after his return was declared Hereditary Emperor, when he assumed the imperial dignity under the title of Napoleon 3rd, EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH. On Jan. 29, 1853, he married at Notre Dame, Eugenie Marie de Montijo, born at Granada, Spain, May 5,

1826, second daughter of Count de Montijo, grandee of Spain, and of Marie Manuela Kirkpatrick, of Closeburn, Scotland.

- b. WAR WITH BUSSIA.—In 1854, a dispute having arisen between the Greek and Latin Churches, respecting the exclusive possession of the Holy Places in Pulsatine, a mixed commission was appointed by the Sultan of Turkey to decide on the respective claims. The decision was given in favour of the Greeks; upon this, the Casr of Bussia claimed such a protectorate over them as was quite incompatible with the authority of their sovereign, the Sultan. On the Casr's refusal to concede his claims, Turkey solicited the aid of France and England to resist his pretensions, and then declared war against Bussia, Oct. 5, 1883. On March 12, 1854, England shd France concluded a treaty with Turkey, and on March 23 declared war against Russia, in which they were joined on Jan. 26, 1885, by Sardinia. The principal battles in this war were—Alma, fought Sept. 20, 1884; Balaklava, Oct. 25; Intermann, Nov. 5, in all of the the allies defeated the Russians; Eupadoria, Feb. 17, 1855, in which the Turks defeated the Russians. The Malakof fort, forming part of Sebastopol, was taken by the Franch, Sept. 8, 1885. The war ended on March 20, 1886, when a Tresty of Peace was signed at Paris; and the Orimea evacuated by the allies on July 9, following.—On March 18, 1856, the Prince Imperial was born. Several attempts have been made at different times on the life of the Emperor Napoleon; the most serious was that made by Orsini, Pleri, and others, on Jan. 14, 1888. These men were shortly afterwards executed.
- c. In 1859, THE ITALIAN WAR OF LIBERATION commenced. On Austria's invading Sardinia, France declared war against Austria and joined Sardinia, May 12. The French and Sardinians gained the following victories:—Montbello, May 20; Pulestro, May 30; Magenta, June 4; Merignano, June 8; and Solferiso, June 24. An armistice was agreed on at Villa Franca, in Lombardy, July 11, which led to the Treaty of Peace signed at Zurich, by which Lombardy was ceded to Sardinia, Aug. 8, 1859. For the assistance rendered to Sardinia in this war, Sevoy and Vice were annexed to France, March 24, 1851; while the small principality of Monaco was purchased for 4,000,000 francs, and also annexed to France, for Feb. 5, 1861.—A Commercial Treaty with England on the Free Trade principle was signed Jan 28, 1860.
- d. WAE WITH MEXICO, 1862.—In consequence of the long continued indignities to which foreigners had been subjected by the Mexican government, added to the dishonourable refusal of the Mexicans to meet their obligations to foreign bondholders, France, England, and Spain determined upon obtaining redress by force of arms. Each of these nations, accordingly, sent out a body of troops early in Jan. 1862. Shortly afterwards, however, the Emperor of the French so enlarged the original object of invasion, that the English and Spanish generals withdrew from the contest in May. Upon this, the French sent reinforcements to their troops, and in 1863 conquered the country, changed the government to a limited monarohy, procured a plebiactic in favour of the emperor of Austria, Emperor of Mexico. The Mexicans, however, a savage and treacherous race, betrayed Maximilian to Juares the Republican General, who merediesely caused him to be publickly shot. The French finally abandoned the country in 1867.
- e. WAR WITH ANNAM, &c.—In 1862, the Annamese having persecuted some French Roman Catholio Missionaries and their converts, the protection of the French government was requested by the missionaries. The request was very readily granted, as it supplied a plausible pretext for securing an advantageous district in Asia. Troops were accordingly sent; the Annamese were defeated and compelled to cede Saigon and three extensive provinces to France, and permit toleration to the Christians.
- f. WAR WITH PRUSSIA.—On July 15, 1870, Napoleon 3rd, irritated by the candidatureship of a Prince of Hohensollers for the vacant throne of Spain (though the Prince, when he found that offence had been taken, withdrew), and impelled, not only by his ministers but by the clamours of the Partisian populace, rashly declared war against Prussia. This has been the most disastrous war to the French arms on record. For, on Sept. 2, 1870, the Entheror was himself compelled to surrender at SEDAN as a prisoner of war to the King of Prussia; an act which was immediately followed by the surrender of Mac Mahon and his whole army of 70,000 men. The news of these mistortunes, instead of combining all parties in the defence of their government and country

suddenly produced, on Sept. 4, a REVOLUTION in Paris, when the IMPERIAL DYNASTY WAS DEPOSED, and a REPUBLIO proclaimed in its stead. This sudden change, as might have been expected, made matters worse, as it introduced insubordination into the army, and paralysed the exertions of parising generals. City after city and fort after fort surrendered to the Prussians. METZ, the strongest fortress in the country, capitulated Oct. 26, when Marshal Basains, and an army of 178,000 men, surrendered prisoners of war. Paris, after a siege of several months, capitulated, Jan. 29, 1871. At last, a Treaty of Paces, on hard and humiliating terms, was granted by Prussia, and ratified by the French National Assembly, on Feb. 26, 1871. By this Treaty, Alsoce (with the exception of Belfort) and a part of Lorrains, including Mets and Thionville, have been ceded to Germany. In addition to this, a pecuniary indemnification amounting to 200,000,000?. sterling has to be paid to Germany within 3 years. The Emperor Napoleon, at the conclusion of the war, was released, and has again sought shelter in England.

- 289. THE THIRD REPUBLIC, SEPT. 4, 1870-71.—On the proclamation of the third Republic by the mob in Paris, Jules Favre, Gambetta and others were nominated the Provisional or Defence Government. This was superseded in March 1871 by the National Assembly, which met first at Bordeaux and then at Versailles, and appointed M. THIRSS the head of the Executive. During April, May, and part of June, the Communists and Red-republicans of Paris waged a senseless and ornel war against the properly appointed Government. Happily, however, though with the loss of hundreds of lives and the destruction of immense property, the insurgents have been subdued and peace restored. In Aug. 1871 M. THIRSS was declared PRESUBLET OF THE EFPUBLIC for 3 years.
- 190. In concluding this Historical Sketch of France, I have considered that the student will derive advantage by a brief statement of the PRINCIPAL DIFFERENCES between the French and English Governments:—
- a. In France, the Government, whether Monarchical, Republican, or Imperial, has generally been arbitrary, the powers of which have either been ill-defined, or subject to sudden and sweeping changes. In England, on the contrary, the Government is a Constitutional Monarchy, consisting of three branches, of each of which the powers and duties are clearly defined and settled by law.
- b. In France, the old Nobility formed an exclusive and privileged class, retaining in their own hands the most distinguished posts and offices; admitting rarely, if ever, any of the middle class, however eminent, to become ennobled; were numerous, generally oppressive, and paid few or no taxes. In England, on the contrary, the Aristocracy, though mostly rich hereditary landowners, are hereditary only in their titles, property, and right to vote in the house of Peers; they are exempt from no taxes nor from any civil responsibilities. Mere of humble origin, when pre-eminently distinguished for some great merit, here been ennobled in England. Our Aristocracy are, as a body, deeply interested in the stability of the country, constitute in general the most liberal landlords, and have, on many occasions, formed a strong check on the attempted encroachments of the monarch on the one hand, and the fickle hastiness of the people on the other.
- c. In France, not only the Ministers, but the members of the Senate and the Legislative body, receive an allowance for attendance at each session. In England, only the Ministers of the Government receive salaries; both the Peers and the Representatives of the Commons attend Parliament without any remuneration whatever.
- d. In France, both National and Local Affairs are under the control of government; the Prefects of Departments, the Mayors of Towns as well as the Police, are all appointed by the Central Government, and receive salaries for their offices. In England, Local affairs are not interfered with by the National Government, but are managed by the mayors, aldermen, and common council of each borough, who are chosen by the burgesses, and receive no salaries for their services.
- e. In France, the taxes are frequently raised by arbitrary means; forced conscriptions have been repeatedly if not generally made; freedom of the press is much restricted; the circulation of the Scriptures, if not actually prohibited before the First Revolution, was practically so, as the iniquitous persecutions of the Albigeness and Huguenots fully testify. In England, no taxes can be raised without the concurrence of Parliament; nor can any man be compelled to serve either in the army or navy against his will. No restriction is put on the

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free circulation of the Scriptures, nor on the Press beyond what moral obligation requires.

f. In France, as all power is centred in Paris, should this Central Power be crushed, there is an end of the government, and a new order may be suddenly and violently created, as has been the case several times within the last century. In England, no mob can overthrow the government, the ringleaders, however numerous, would soon be brought to punishment. Besides, the English are an order-loving and law-observing people, and know full well that any grievance can be redressed by an appeal to the law or to parliament.

LESSON 93.—BELGIUM.

- 191a. Physical.—Belgium in its extreme Longth is 190 m.; Breadth, 115 m.; Area, 11,402 sq. m.; Pop. 4,940,570; Cap. Brussels.
 - b. Belgium has neither Islands nor Foreign Possessions.
- 292a. Surface.—The face of the country is in general level, except towards the S.E. in the provinces of Liege and Namur, where the surface becomes undulating, and in some parts hilly. In the Northern provinces the land along the rivers is protected from inundation by Dykes. The country is thickly studded with thriving towns and villages. In the E. and S. of Belgium are several forests; especially in Hainault and Luxembourg.
- b. There are no Mountains. The Rivers are the Scheldt (skelt), and Meuse (French, in German Maas), with the tributaries of the Meuse, namely, Sambre, Ourte, and Lesse.
- 193a. The Climate.—The provinces differ very much in climate; in the elevated Central and South East provinces the air is salubrious, but in the West Districts, cool and damp; particularly in the West parts of Flanders and Antwerp. The winters in general are cold; the summers frequently moist and hot.
- b. The mean annual Temperature is 50° ; the extreme heat is 92° , the extreme cold 3° Fahr.
- 294a. The Soil.—The Soil of Belgium is not naturally fertile, consisting of sand interspersed with fields of clay; but, by assiduous cultivation, it has been brought to so high a degree of fertility, that the whole country has the appearance of a garden.
- b. Minerals.—The chief Minerals are coal, principally in Liege and Hainanlt, iron, which is very abundant, copper, zinc, marble, slate, and stone. Mining is extensively pursued.
- 195a. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Belgium is divided into 9 Provinces:—

Provinces.	Bq. ₩iles.	Popula- tion.	Chief Towns. Pop. in Thousands.
1. Antwerp .	1,096	476,287	Antwerp, 114; Malines, 33; Lierre, 15.
2. Bast Flanders	1,162	891,008	Ghest, 120; Oudenarde, 5; Dendermond, 8; St. Nicholas, 20.
2. West Flanders	1,251	656,489	Bruges, 50; Ostend, 17; Courtrai, 23; Ypres
4. Hainanit .	1,441	856,801	Mons, 26; Tournay, 31; Charleroi, 12.
5. S. Brabant .	1,371	852,624	Brussels, 300 ; Louvein, 32 ; Terlemont, 13
6. Limburg	984	199,705	Husselt, 9; St. Trond, 9; Tongres, 6.
7. Liege	1,120	561,899	Liege, 97; Verviers, 28; Huy, 10.
8. Namur	1.417	306,516	Namur, 29; Dinant, 7.
Luxembourg.	1,710	207,246	Arion, 5.
	11,402	4,940,570	• • •

- b. These are subdivided into 28 Circuits (arrondissements), 365 Cantons, and 2,528 parishes (communes). The names in Italias denote the Provincial Capitals.
- Agriculture is conducted on very economical principles, by which spade husbandry is extensively practised. Much of the fartility of the soil may be traced to the rotation of crops, and to the constant application of manure, to obtain which large numbers of live-stock are reared. The farmer's chief care is to understand and improve the quality of the soil, so as to make it produce a great deal at little cost. The farms are in general only small.
- b. Products.—All kinds of grain and fruit are raised in abundance; and also, potatoes, turnips, flax, hops, tobacco, beet-root, and chicory. Horiculture is an important branch of industry. Horned cattle, horses, sheep, pigs, and poultry are extensively reared.
- 297a. Manufactures, &c.—An amazing impetus has been given of late years to Belgian industry; and, perhaps, no country is in a more thriving condition than Belgium. The fine linen fabrics, lawns, and cambrics of Mechlin and Brussels cannot be surpassed. The chief Manufactures are woollens (the most important), cottons, linens, carpets, silks, lace, embroidery, paper, oil-cloth, steamengines, fire-arms, nails, cutlery, and other articles.
- b. The Exports are very important, consisting of woollen, linen, and cotton goods, glass wares, refined sugar, corn, cattle, skins, paper, iron goods, nalls, machinery, fire-arms, &c. The amount of Exports to Great Britain alone in 1868, was 8,225,000t. The Imports comprise coffee, cotton, wool, hides, salt, raw sugar, wines, timber, earthenware, indigo, tobaccoo, &c. The amount of Imports from Britain in 1868 was \$,149,000t. c. The Roads throughout are excellent, and kept in good repair. The whole country is intersected with Canals; and a complete system of Rathways is in full operation, amounting in 1869 to 1,801 miles. d. The chief Ports are—Antwerp, Ostend, and Nieuport.
- **LESSON 94.**—Social. **1982.** Government.—The Government is a Constitutional Monarchy with two chambers; comprising a Senate, or Upper House, elected for 8 years, and a Lower House of Representatives, elected for 4 years; both these are elected by the people. The Sovereignty is hereditary, except in failure of heirs male, when the succession will be determined by the assembled chambers.
- b. Punishment of death has been abolished. Freedom of the Press and Trial by Jury are established. Military Service is required of every male at the age of 19, for a period of 8 years; but substitution is permitted. The Public Revenue in 1870 was 7,061,0001,; the Expenditure was 7,009,0001. The Public Debt is 27,360,0001, c. The Army in 1869 was 37,000 regulars and 125,000 militia. The New consists of only a few gun-boats. d. There is no compulsory assessment for the Poor; but all mendicity is prohibited. Hospitals for the indigent and asylums for lunatics are numerous.
- 199a. Religion.—Properly speaking there is no state feligion; but the great majority of the people are Roman Catholics, rigid adherents to the dogmas and ceremonies of the Romish Church, and remarkably subject to the influence of the priests. The Protestants are few in number. Complete toleration, however, is allowed by the constitution, to all persussions in their mode of worship.
- b. Part of the Salaries of the Ministers of every denomination is paid by the State. The Roman Catholics have one Archbishop and five Blahops. In Belgium there are 993 convents.

- 200a. Education. In Belgium, Education is not compulsory; in every town, however, there are primary schools, in which the instruction is limited to reading, writing, and a little arithmetic. These schools are mostly under the influence of the priests. In most of the principal towns, there are Sunday and evening schools for the working classes; and for the Middle and Upper Classes, Athenseums and Gymnasiums; still, about 30 per cent. of the adult population are unable to read and write.
- b. There are four Universities devoted to the higher range of Scientific and Literary Studies; of these Ghent and Liège belong to the State; Loucoin is exclusively Roman Oatholic, while Brussels, founded by association, is open to all classes. The System for examining Students and conferring degrees similar to that adopted by the University of London. c. There are several public Libraries. Painting and Architecture have in Belgium been carried to a high state of perfection.
- 201a. Races, Language, &c.—Belgium is possessed by two principal races:—

 —1. The Flemings, who occupy East and West Flanders, and great portions of Brabant, Antwerp, and Limburg, are of Testonic origin, speak a dialect of the Dutch, and amount to about 3,200,000. 2. The Walloons, who occupy Liège, Namur, Hainault, and parts of Luxembourg, are of French origin, speak a dialect of old French, and amount to about 1,600,000. The French language is The French language is used in public affairs, and by all the educated classes.
- b. Manners, &c.-The Belgians differ much in the different provinces. the borders of Holland, the people are very similar to the Dutch, and adopt their customs, amusements, and dress. In the Southern districts, they resemble the French in appearance, costume, and language. The Beigian burghers have always manifested an impatience of control, which, in the Middle Ages, embroiled them with their feudal Lords, and led them into violent excesses. They are now noted for their observance of religious rites and ceremonies They are now noted for their observance of religious rites and coremonies; hence, long and imposing processions of the priesthood in their sacerdotal dresses are frequently parading the streets of the principal towns, when it would be dangerous to manifest the slightest disposition to ridicule. The higher classes are greatly influenced by higotry, and the lower by superstition. Music and Dancing are favourite ammements. In general, the labouring classes in Belgium are rude and less instructed than in Holland; but, industrious and provident habits are observable in every part of the kingdom, especially in Flanders. especially in Flanders.
- 202. CHIEF TOWES AND HISTORICAL LOCALITIES.-Pop. of towns in thousands.

Ant'-werp, a large scaport, with a strong citadel, once the residence of Rubens, Vandyck, and Teniers, p. 114.

Bruges (bru-jes), cap. of W. Flanders, once the resid of the Counts of Flanders; manf. of damasks, lace, carpets, p. 50.

n. 30.

BRUSSELS, cap. of Belgium, in S. Brabant, an elegant city, manf. of carpets, lace, &c., pop. with suburbs, 300.

Charleroi (skari-roah), in Hainault, naiis, cutlers, &c.; nr. are coal mines,

Cour-tray, in W. Flanders, fine linens,

p. 25 Dendermonde' or Termonde, in E. Fian-ders, a strongly fortified tn., p. 8. Fontenoy', a vil. in Hainault, where the English were def. by the French in 1746.

Ghent (gong), cap. of E. Flauders, linens, carpets, &c., seat of a university, bpl. of John of Ghent (son of Edward 3rd), also of Emperor Charles 5th, p. 130.

Huy (we), in Liege, iron works, paper mills, p. 10.

Liège (legie), cap. of the prov., a cel. ecclesiastical tn. in the mid. ages; manf. of fire-arms, machinery, and seat

manf. of fire-arms, machinery, and seat of a university, p. 97. Louvain*, in S. Brabant, cel. in mid. ages, now the seat of a university; manf. of lace, woollens, &c., p. 33. Mech'lin (mek-lin) Fr. Malines (leen), in Antwerp, fam. for its lace, damasks,

Mons, in Hainault (kin-oit), a strong tn.,

woollena, p. 28. Namur (na-moor), cap. of Namur, iron works, cattlery, p. 25. Nicholas, in R. Flanders, manf. of cottons

Nicholas, in R. Flanders, manf. of cottons and woollens, p. 24.
Ostend', in W. Flanders, a scaport, cel. for several sleges, p. 17.
Oudenarde', in E. Flanders, cel. for a vict. of the English under Mariborough over the French in 1708, p. 6.
Quatre Bras (kets-bvd.), a vil. 10 m. 8. of Waterloo, where Weilington repulsed Mey, June 16, 1815.
Ram'-li-lies, in 8. Brabant, cel. for a vict. existed by the English over the French,

gained by the English over the French, May 28, 1706.

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waters, p. 4. Thi-elt (ti-elt), in W. Flanders, manf. of woollens, linens, p. 11.
Tournay (toor-nay), in Hainault, carpets,
woollens, p. 31.

in Liège, cel. for its chalybeate ters, p. 4 etc. (t.-64b), in W. Fianders, manf. of collens, linens, p. 11.
rnay (toor-nay), in Hainault, carpets, collens, p. 32, wollens, p

- 263a. HISTORY.—In the times of the Romans, Belgium and the adjacent parts formed a third division of Gaul (called Gallia Belgica), and was occupied by several warlike German tribes. In the 5th century, the Belgian population was much changed by successive invasions of Franks, Saxons, and other tribes. Such of the inhabitants as had embraced Christianity became known under the name of Flemings.
- b. In Charlemagne's time, A.D. 800, the country became subject to France, and the valiant warriors were succeeded by abject Serfs. The clergy at that time enjoyed great wealth, while the people were oppressed. Gradually, however, the Flemings were enabled to form associations, called Suids, for protection and mutual assistance. These were the origin of all the ancient sumicipal corporations, which soon became numerous.
- c. In 1070, Flemish Maritime Commerce had made great progress with Spain and England, whence they imported their wool. Woollen goods, corn, and the herring fishery formed a great source of wealth. The men of Flanders were held in great repute as good soldiers, and constituted an important part of the Norman army which invaded England. The country was divided into several large and powerful Earldoms and Duothies. When the Crusades commenced, many of the Lords parted with portions of their lands, and granted great privileges to the trading community, in order to secure the means of fighting against the Saracens. The Flemish Burghers were thus enabled to become, in a great measure, independent, having a jurisdiction of their own. They consequently formed themselves into Communes, elected Magistrates, built magnificent town-halls, and so extended their influence, that ultimately they became only nominally subject to their princes. only nominally subject to their princes.
- d. In A.D. 1884, these Provinces passed by marriage to the House of Burgundy, and under it the manufacturing and commercial towns were very flourishing. Luxury, however, brought in many evils; an inordinate fondness for dress and show, and a sad degeneracy in morals. The famous order of the Golden Fleece was instituted in 1430. In 1477 Belgium passed under the dynasty of Austria, and was by Charles 6th conveyed in 1855 to his son Philip, King of Spainstion, and the cruelties of the Duke of Alva, drove many of the best artisans to take refuge in England. Belgium remained under Spain till 1706, when, by the victory of Ramillies, gained by Mariborough over the French, it again became subject to Austria. and under it the manufacturing and commercial towns were very flourishing.
- e. In 1795, it was conquered by the French and incorporated into the French Republic. In 1815 it was annexed to Holland, and formed with it the Kingdom of the Netherlands. In 1830 Belgium revolted from Holland; and, with the assistance of the French, became an independent kingdom. In 1831, Leopold, a prince of Saxe-Cobourg and uncle of Queen Victoria, was induced, after some hesitation, to accept the crown. He proved a wise and able sovereign; at his death, Dec. 1865, his son Leopold 2nd succeeded to the throne.

LESSON 95.--HOLLAND, or THE WETHERLANDS.

- 206a. Physical.—Holland, or the Netherlands, is about 160 m. in Length, by 110 m. in Breadth. The Area, including Limburg and Luxembourg is 18,627 sq. m.; Pop. 8,735,632; Cap. AMSTERDAM.
- b. Gulfs, &c.—Zuyder Zee (the chief entrance to which is called The Helder); Lauwer Zee on the N., and the Dollart on the N.E.
- c. Islands.-Wal'cheren, North Beveland, South Beveland, Tholen, Over Flakes, Voorne, Texel, Vliëland, &c.

- Lesson 90.
- 205a. Surface.—The natural Surface of the country, with the exception of a few slight elevations in Guelderland, Utrecht, and Overyssel, presents one unbroken flat, without a hill or rock, without forests, or (except in the South part) running waters. The land, consisting principally of moor, marsh, and meadow land, is traversed by numerous canals, which are lined on their banks with rows of willows and poplars. This scene, however, is relieved by meadows of wide extent and beautiful verdure, covered with numerous herds of well-fed cattle.
- b. The Northern parts of the country are mostly below the level of the sea, to which the bordering sea rises during high tides or swells. Hence originated an imminent danger of inundation, till the Dutch constructed those immense mounds or Dykes, by which the sea is excluded, and which form so extraordinary a monument of their industry. These Mounds, constructed of earth and clay, are protected in some places by wicker-work, and in places more exposed, by masonry or numerous piles. Marshes are numerous.
- c. Mountains—none. d. Rivers, are the Rhine (with its branches, Waal, Leck, Yssel, and Vecht), the Meuse (or Mass), and the Scheldt (skelt).

The Rhine communicates with the Zuyder Zee through the Yssel and Vecht; and with the Meuse through the Waal and Leck. Haarlem Lake or Meer, a former inlet of the Zuyder Zee, has been drained, by which 45,000 acres of land have been gained. Other Meers both in North and South Holland have also been drained, by which much land has been reclaimed. The low drained lands are called Polders.

- 206a. Climate. The Climate is generally moist and foggy, and even in the finest weather the atmosphere is loaded with vapour which would rust everything were it not prevented by the extraordinary cleanliness of the Dutch. In consequence of the dampness of the climate and the lowness of the country, the inhabitants are frequently subject to agues, intermittent fevers, rheumatisms, and similar diseases.
- b. The mean canual Temperature at Amsterdam is 49°; the mean of Winter is 35° Fahr.; of Summer 64°; but in Autumn, the temp. is sometimes 90°. Little snow falls. The Canals are generally frozen in Winter for 3 months, when Skating is the usual mode of locomotion. In Winter and Spring, the winds are generally strong; these, however, purify the air, which otherwise would be unhealthy, from the exhalations arising from numerous stagnant waters.
- **207a.** Soil.—The Soil near the coasts is generally sand mixed with turf, but it is cultivated with great care. In other parts there is much deep loam, the *polders* are generally fertile. The provinces near to Germany contain many meers, marshes, and turf moors. In Drenthe, *Pauper Colonies* have been established since 1818 for the reclamation of waste land.
- b. Minerals are not to be found, except turf, potters' clay, fuller's earth, and some bog-iron in Overyssel and Guelderland. c. Of Wild Animals, hares and rabbits abound, as well as pheasants, partridges, and Storks, which last are almost superstitiously revered.
- 208. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Holland, including Luxembourg, which is neutralised, consists of 12 Provinces:—

Provinces.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns. Pop. in Thousands.
1. Groningen	907 1,029 1,267 1,308 1,972 531	Groningen, 36. Assen, 5: Meppel, 7. Loeuwardon, 24; Harlingen, 10. Zwolle, 19; Deventer, 16. Arnheim, 20; Zutphen, 13; Nimeguen, 21. Uirscht, 55; Amersfoort, 13. (AMSTERDAM, 263: Harlem, 29: Helder, 14; Saar-
7. N. Holland	966 1,176 642 1,985	dam, 12. Hagus, 82; Rotterdam, 111; Leyden, 37; Dort, 23; Delft, 31. Middleburg, 16; Flushing, 11. Middleburg, 18; Breds, 15; Bergen-op-Zoom, 7.
11. Pt. of Limburg . 12. Pt. of Luxembourg	854 990 13,637	Maestricht, 28; Roermond, 9. Luxembourg, 12.

- 209a. INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS. Agriculture, &c. From the humidity of the Climate, Holland is better fitted for a grazing than for an arable country, and accordingly, much more land is occupied in pasture than in tillage. Of the entire surface, one fourth is said to be unreclaimed; of the remainder, two thirds are in meadow, and the rest in tillage and gardens. The Dutch dairies are celebrated, and great quantities of butter and cheese are made and exported.
- b. The chief vegetable Products are buck-wheat, barley, and oats; vegetable madder, millet, potatoes, hemp, and flax. The corn raised is insufficient for home consumption. Cattle are numerous and usually of a large size. Horticulture has long formed a favourite occupation of the Dutch, particularly in the Floral department.
- 210a. Manufactures, &c.—The Manufactures of Holland have of late much extended. The potteryware of Delft has regained much of its former importance. The spirit called Geneva gin, or Hollands, is well-known. The principal Manufactures are linen, woollens, silks, leather, refined sugar, gin, potteryware, paper, cotton, wooden clocks, and jewellery. There are numerous distilleries, breweries, and bleach-grounds.
- b. The Commercs of Holland, which was nearly annihilated during the French occupancy of the country, has since 1814 again become extensive. The Exports consist of Colonial Produce, as coffee, sugar, spices, tea, silks, &c.; of Home Productions, as butter, cheese, flax, hemp, tobacco, madder, cattle and horses, with the produce of their Fisheries and Distilleries. The amount of Exports to all countries in 1868 was 30,000,0001; to Great Britais alone, 11,389,0001. The chief Imports are corn, salt, wine, timber, granite, marble, and manufactured goods. The total value of Imports from all nations was in 1868, 33,750,0001; from Great Britain alone, 10,389,0001. The Fisheries are very important, employing several thousand boats. c. The Roads between the chief towns are usually broad and well paved; but the principal communication is by Canals, which are very numerous. In 1867, about 659 miles of Railway were in operation. The chief Ports are Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Flushing, Dort, and Brielle.

The Government since 1816 has been a Constitutional Hereditary Monarchy. The Legislative Power is vested in the Sovereign and the States General, which consist of two Chambers, the Upper of 39 members, elected by the Provincial States from the most highly assessed inhabitants, and the Lower of 80 Deputies chosen for 2 years by voters who pay assessed taxes amounting to 11. 13s. annually.

- b. From 1815 to 1830, Holland and Belgium formed the Kingdom of the Netherlands. In 1830, Belgium became independent; but the King of Holland retains his former title of 'King of the Netherlands,' 'Prince of Crange,' &c. The Royal Family of Holland is descended from a German Count Walram, one of whose descendants in 1404 acquired the barony of Breda, and settled in the Netherlands. A descendant of this baron married the sister and helress of the Prince of Orange and Count of Chalons, and his son, on the death of the Prince, assumed the title in 1580. The principality of Orange was a small independent state near Avignon in the South of France, which, on the death of William 3rd of England, in 1713, was ceded to Louis 14th of France.
- c. The Resense of Holland in 1869 was 8,069,0001; the Expenditure about the same. The National Debt is 80,842,0001. The national credit of Holland ranks high in the Commercial World for integrity and punctuality of payment. d. The Army in 1869 consisted of about 61,000 men placed in the Netherlands, and 27,000 in the Colonies; the Navy of 60 steamers and 54 sailing vessels, manned by about 9,000 men. e. Provision is made for the indigent Poor; all mendicancy is punishable by law.
- 212. Religion.—The Religion of the great majority of the people, as well as of the Royal Family, is Calvinistic Protestantism; but all persuasions have full toleration. The Salaries of the Ministers of every denomination are paid by the Government.
- 213a-Education.—The Primary Education pursued in Holland is entirely Secular, and is extensively diffused.
- b. The whole is under the superintendence of the Minister of the Interior, assisted by an Inspector-General. No teacher can exercise his profession till he has received a certificate of general qualification. For the Higher Branches of Education, there are three Universities, Leyden, Utrecht, and Groningen. c. In Science and Literature, the Dutch can boast of Erasmus, Grotius, Boerhaave, Leeunhoek, &c. d. The Dutch Language, which is a dialect of the Teutonic, is the general Language of the country.
- 214. The People, Habits, &c .- The Dutch are strongly attached to the Government; and few countries possess a population in which the domestic and social duties are discharged with such constancy. Their national character has been moulded into the form natural to a highly commercial people—solid, steady, quiet, laborious, and eagerly intent on the accumulation of wealth, which they very properly seek rather by economy and steady perseverance than by specula-tion. A scrupulous economy, indeed, and cautious foresight seem to characterise every class of the community, both agricultural and commercial; and thus, the Dutch are enabled to bear up against the most formidable physical difficulties, and to secure a larger amount of individual comfort than probably exists in an other country. Their extreme cleanliness is well known.
- 215 .- The Foreign Possessions of Holland are extensive and valuable, comprising :-
- 1. In the East Indies—Java, the most important of their possessions, Madura, Bali, Lombak, Sumbawa, the South part of Timor, West part of Sumatra (Bencoolen, Palembang, &c.), Banca, Riouw, the South-West of Bornēo) Band-jermassin, &c.), some of the Moluccas (Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, and Gilcio), Celèbès (having Menado on the North and Macassar on the South).

 2. In the West Indies—St. Eustatius, Saba, and part of St. Martin.

 3. In South America—Dutch Guyana and the island of Curaçoa.

 A. In Artera—El. Mina, and several forta on the coast of Grince.

 - 4. In Africa-El-Mina, and several forts on the coast of Guinea.

216. CHIEF TOWNS AND PLACES OF INTEREST.—Pop. in thousands.

Alk-maar, in N. Holland, trade in butter, | Arnheim (Aime), in Guelderland, woollens,

cheese, &c., p. 11.
Amerafoort, in Urrecht, cottons, woollens, glassware, p. 13.
Amerafoort, in Urrecht, cottons, woollens, glassware, p. 13.
Ameramona', in N. Holland, the cap., a large countercial city, built on piles.
The principal streets are neat; there are numerous casals, p. 563.

Aranem (same), in Gueideriand, woollens, cottons, &c., p. 39.
Ber gen-op-Zoom, in N. Brabant, a strong fortreas, p. 7.
Bois-ie-Duc (bo-le-deuk), a fortified town in N. Brabant, p. 24.
Brêda, a strongly fortified town in N. Brabant, p. 14.
Brabant, p. 14.

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Delft, in S. Holland, cel. for its earthen-ware; bpl. of Grotius, p. 22. Deventer, in Overyssel, carpets, linens,

p. 17.

Dort, or Dordrecht, in S. Holland, the anc. kers, or Dordrecht, in S. Holland, the anc., residence of the Counts of Holland; in 1573 the independence of the United Provinces was first declared here; in 1618, a cel. Synod was held, which coudemned the tenets of Arminius, p. 24. Flushing, a strong scaport; bpl. of De

Ruyter, p. 11.

Ruyter, p. 11.
Gron'ingen, a fine commercial city, seat
of an anc. university, p. 38.
Haariem, in a well cultivated district;
manf. of cottons, silks, carpets; its
cathedral contains a fam. organ, p. 29.

cathedral contains a ram, organ, p. 29.

Hague, an elegant city, nr. it the rural
pal, of the King, p. 83.

Roorn, a scaport with much trade, p. 10.

Leouwarden, in Friesland, with a royal
pal, much trade, p. 25.

Ley'den, in S. Holland, seat of a cel.

Legreen, in S. Holland, seat or a cel. univers. p. 37.

Luxembourg, cap. of Luxembourg, with many anc remains, p. 11.

Maes-trickt (mode-street), in Limburg, a strong tn., manf. cottons, woollens, paper, p. 28.

Middleburg, in Zeeland, an anc. city; manf. starch, glass, paper, p. 16.

Nimeg'uen, in Guelderland, a strong tn.; p. 22.

Rotterdam', in S. Holland, a large seaport, bpl, of Erasmus; the resid. of many English, p. 115.

English, p. 118.

Schiedam (akee), in S. Holland, cel. for the manf. of gin, termed 'Geneva' (prop. jensover, from the juniper berry), p. 12.

Texel, an isle at the entrance of the

Zuyder Zee, 18 m. by 6 m., p. 5. Utrecht (Ultra-Trajectum), fam. for two treaties; one in 1579, uniting the Seven Provinces; the other in 1713, terminating the war of the Spanish succession,

b. ov. Walcheren (wolf-shoren), an isle 12 m. by 8 m., fertile but unhealthy, below the level of the sea, from which it is protected by dykes, p. 45.

Zandam (improp. Sasrdam), in N. Holland, where Peter the Great of Russia worked as a shipwright, p. 12. Sutphen, in Guelderland, where Sir Philip Sydney fell in battle in 1586,

p. 15. Zwolle, in Overyssel, formerly one of the

Hanse towns, p. 30.

Zuyder Zee '(st-der zee), formerly a lake, now a gulf, united to the German Ocean by an inundation in 1282, l. 45 m. by

217a. HISTORY.—The Dutch occupy the district once possessed by the Balawi. In 843 A.D. this district formed part of the Empire of Germany. In 1000 A.D. the country was divided into Duchies, Counties, and imperial cities, Among the nobles, the Country of Flanders were the most powerful. In 1383, the House of Burgundy obtained the supremacy. In 1548, the celebrated Emperor Charles 5th, annexed these provinces to Spain; but the establishment of the iniquitous Inquisition by Philip 2nd in 1566, roused five of these provinces (Holland, Utrecht, Zeeland, Guelderland, and Friesland), to renounce their allegiance to him. In 1573, the Prince of Orange (ancestor of the Dutch royal family) joined the revolt, and was appointed the leader. In 1587, Maurice, the son of this prince, was appointed Staditolder. In 1584, Overyuse and Grossingen having joined the league, the Republic of the Seven United Provinces was fully formed, which was afterwards called Holland from the leading recycling. formed, which was atterwards called *Holland* from the leading province. The *Independence* of the United Provinces was recognised in 1609 by Spain. *Dreathe* and *North Brabant* were subsequently added. The chief Magistrate was called the control of the contro Independence of the United Provinces was recognised in 1609 by Spain. Detailed and North Brabant were subsequently added. The chief Magistrate was called STADTHOLDER, or Protector of the State. In 1648, at the Peace of Westphalia, the Republic was recognised by Europe. In 1652, it was dwar against England, when the Dutch fleets were commanded by Vas Tromp and De Ruyter. In 1747, the dignity of Stadtholder, which had hitherto been elective, was dealered heavilities in the Heure of General and 18 the Score Described. declared hereditary in the House of Orange, in all the Seven Provinces.

b. In 1794, the French Republicans overran Holland, when the Stadtholder took refuge in England. In 1806, Holland was formed by Napoleon 1st into a kingdom and given to his brother Louis (father of Napoleon 8rd), who resigned in 1810. It was then annexed to France, and remained united till Nov. 1813, when the Orange Family were recalled. The Prince of Orange governed the country by the title of Sovereign Prince till 1815, when the seven northern provinces, called Holland, and the ten southern provinces, called Belgium, after a separation of 200 years, were again united under the name of the 'Kingdom of the Nether-lands.' This union continued for fifteen years, when, in 1830, the Belgians revolted from their allegiance, and, by the assistance of the French, who sent an army to their aid, became an independent state. The King of Holland, however, retains the title of 'King of the Netherlands,' along with possession of parts of Limburg and Luxembourg. In 1867, Limburg was made an integral part of Holland, while Luxembourg was attached to it as neutralised territory, and its fortress demolished.

The Sovereigns of the House of Orange who have reigned as Kings of Holland are—William 1st, 1815; William 2nd, 1840; William 3rd, 1849, the present sovereign.

DENMARK.

LESSON 97 .- DENMARK.

- 218a. Physical.—Denmark consists of the Peninsula of Jutland and the islands of Zealand, Fuhnen, and several adjacent ones. It was despoiled in 1864 by Prussia and Austria of its Southern Provinces. Its present *Area*, exclusive of Iceland and the Faröe Isles, is 14,797 sq. m. *Pop.* 1,732,000. *Cap.* COPENHAGEN.
- b. Gulfs, Straits.—The Sound between Sweden and Zealand, the Great Belt between Zealand and Fuhnen, the Little Belt between Fuhnen and Sleswick.
- c. The Danish Islands are Zealand, Fuhnen, Falster, Laáland, Langeland, Mõen, Bornholm, and several smaller ones.
 - d. Capes.—The Skaw and the Horn.
- 219a. Surface.—The Surface of Denmark is nearly flat; the islands in particular, rising only a few feet above the level of the sea. On the East there are few elevations. The highest part in Jutland is 510 ft., and of the islands 400 ft. above the level of the sea. The marshes are numerous and extensive. b. There are no Mountains. c. The East Coast contains many Bays and Fiords, of which the principal is the Lym-fiord, which, forming a series of lagunes and connecting channels, stretches across the peninsula. d. The Rivers are numerous but small. The Eider, the former Southern boundary of Denmark, lies between Sleswick and Holstein. The scenery of several of the islands is very interesting.
- 220a. Climate.—The Climate is humid and cloudy, but, on the whole, temperate and healthy, and milder than in the northern districts of Germany. The Winters, however, are frequently long and severe.
- b. The mean Annual Temp. is 46° Fah.; of Winter, 31°; of Summer, 63°. The average annual days of storm are about 9, of rain 137.
- 221a. The Soil is very various. The Eastern and Southern parts of Jutland contain much fertile land, producing fine pasturage and excellent crops; in the Northern and Western parts the land is mostly heathy and barren. The Islands are generally fertile.
- b. Minerals are triffing; turf is generally used for fuel; Bornholm contains a little coal.
- 222a. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Modern Denmark comprises the following Divisions:—

Provinces or Isles.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns, Pop. in Thousands.
1. Jutland	9,791 2,675 174	Aalborg, 10; Agrhuns, 11; Randers, 9; Viborg, 4. COPENHAGEN, 155; Elainore, 8; Roeskilde 4. Steege, 2.
4. Fuhnen and Langeland 5. Falster and Laaland 6. Bornholm	1,286 648 223	Odensee, 14; Niborg. Nykloping, 3. Rhônne, 5.

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b. The following Duchies, with the isle of Alsen, formerly belonging to Denmark, were wrested from her in 1864 by Prussia and Austria, and afterwards coded to Prussia in 1865. The Area of these is 7,249 sq. miles.

Duchies.		Sq. Miles.	Chief Torona.	Principal and Isla	Bq. Miles,	Chief Tooms.
1. Sleswick			Sleswick, 11.	Lauenburg	404	Lauenburg, 8.
2. Holstein	:		Gluckstadt, 6.	Alsen, Isle	180	Sonderborg, 4.

- 223a. INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS.—Agriculture.—Agriculture, cattlerearing, and dairy-farming, form the chief occupations in Denmark, in all of which the Danes are very skilful:
- b. The chief Products are rye, oats, wheat, barley, potatoes, hemp, beans, buck-wheat, &c. Rye forms the principal corn of the country. The pastures are in most parts excellent. The breeds of horned cattle, sheep, pigs, and goats, are numerous.
- 224a. Manufactures, &c.—As Denmark is essentially an agricultural country, being nearly destitute of coal and other useful minerals, the manufactures are few, and chiefly of a domestic kind.
- b. In Winter, the peasantry in most parts spin and weave linens and woollens, and knit stockings for their own use. Woollens, silks, cottons, and linens are manufactured to some extent in Copenhagen, Altons, &c. There are also breweries, distilleries, sugar refineries, paper mills, tanneries, &c. The Fisheries also are valuable. c. The Exports from Denmark to England consist of agricultural produce, horses, oxen, beer, brandy, tallow, wool, dried fish, &c. The value of these in 1869 was 2,199,000l. The Imports consist of colonial produce, manufactured goods, as woollens, linens, hardware, with salt, oxil, wine, and fruits. The value of those from Britain in 1869 was 1,821,000l. d. The Roads except in Zealand, Fuhnen, and the Duchies, are generally poor. Of Rativays, about 220 miles in Zealand, Sleswick, and Holstein are in operation. e. The chief Ports are—Copenhagen and Aalborg; in the Duchies, Kiel, Flensburg, and Altóna.
- The Government is an hereditary and limited Monarchy. The present Constitution received the sanction of the late King in Nov., 1863. By this constitution, the Executive Power is vested in the King and his responsible ministers, and the Legislative Power in the Rigsdag, or Diet, acting in conjunction with the Sovereign. The King must be a member of the evangelical Lutheran Church.
- b. The Rigatag consists of two Chambers: the Upper or Lands-thing, consisting of 66 members (of whom 12 are chosen by the king), represents the Landed Interest; the Lower or Folke-thing, consisting of 101 members, represents the people. Both of these are, under certain regulations, chosen by the suffrages of the male inhabitants, being householders of 30 years of age and upwards. The powers of these chambers are similar to those of our houses of Lords and Commons. The Laws of Denmark are said to be remarkable of their equity, clearness, and brevity. The Revenue in 1869 was 2,554,000l.; the Expenditure was 2,858,000l.; Public Debt was 13,239,000l. c. Personal Freedom is much greater in Denmark than in Germany. Military Service, however, is required of all men between the ages of 22 and 45, for the Milita, which is called up only for two or three weeks each year for drill. The Army consists of 36,000 men; the Nasy is manned by 900 sailors. The Poor are provided for by an assessment.
- 226. Religion.—The established Religion is Episcopal Lutheranism, of which the King must be a member. There are 7 Bishops who are nominated by the crown, and 1,560 subordinate clergy. Free toleration is granted to all denominations.

- 227a. Education.—Education is widely diffused, there being very few persons unable to read and write. Besides the university of Copenhagen there are superior schools and academies in all the towns. In every parish primary schools are established, in which are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, and natural history.
- b. Language.—The Language of Jutland, North Sleswick, and all the islands is Danish (a branch of the Teutonic); of South Sleswick, Holstein, and Lauenburg is German.
- 228. Race, Character.—The pure Danes are of Scandinavian origin, the same as the Swedes and Norwegians. Both those of Jutland and of the islands are a fine, athletic, and courageous race of men, with blue eyes and light hair. In Character, they are honest, peaceable, industrious, and hospitable, much resembling in their habits the Dutch. Their seamen have always been distinguished for skill and bravery. The Holsteiners are Germans in language and race, and were long dissatisfied with, and disloyal to, their Danish sovereigns. They are now subject to Prussia.
- 229as Foreign Possessions.—In the North Atlantic—Iceland and the Fartie Isles; in the West Indice—St. Thomas, St. Croix, and St. John (which were offered to the United States, but have been refused); and in the Northern Ocean—Greenland.
- The former Danish Possessions in Africa, consisting of several Forts and Factories on the coast of Guinea, and also Tranquebar and Serampore in the East Indies, were sold by the Danes to the English in 1845. The Nicobar Islands in the Bay of Bengal were taken possession of by the Danes in 1756, but abandoned in 1848.
- b. THE FARÖE ISLANDS, lying N.W. of the Shetland Isles, form a group of 22 islands, of which Strombe, the largest, and 16 others are inhabited. The Area of the whole is 510 sq. miles; Pp. about 9,000; the only town is Thorshaven on Stromoe. The Climate is variable, with frequent togs and stormy winds, but yet temperate. The inhabitants are chiefly occupied in fishing, fowling, sheep-rearing, and domestic manufactures. Turnips and potatoes are the principal crops, and in favoured spots, barley and oats.
- c. IGELAND, an island in the North Atlantic, is 220 miles long by 210 miles broad, with an Area of 38,686 sq. miles, and a scanty population of only 70,000; the cap. is Reitiavit, on the S.-W. coast. The Surface is dreary in the extreme, consisting in the interior of snow-clad Mountains, and vast fields of lava, scories, and sand. Eight of the mountains are active Volcances, of which the best known is Hecla, 5,095 ft. above sea-level. About 30 miles N. of Hecla are the Geyers, hot intermittent springs, which at frequent intervals throw up-columns of boiling water, in the Great Geyer to the height of 80 or 90 ft. There are several large Rivers and Lakes. The Coasts, which are the only parts inhabited, abound with sea-fowl, and the inlets, rivers, and laws with fish. The Climate is variable with frequent storms, but the Atmosphere is considered; not colder than that of Denmark. The Soil is volcanic and barren, only very little being capable of cultivation. The only Products are stunted grass, potatoes, and a few hardy vegetables. Turf is the principal fuel. Sheep, horned cattle, pigs, and horses are reared, and, in the interior, are some wild rein-deer. The inhabitants are chiefly occupied in fishing, cattle-rearing, four-catching for the eider down, and domestic manufactures. The Exports consist of wool, dried fish, eider down, seal skins, and oil. The Imports are coffee agar, re, tobacco, wood, coal, fron, and some manufactured goods. The Government is conducted by the Danish Governor and a council of 26 members. The people are Lutherass under a resident bishop.

Though labouring under the most unfavourable outward condition, the inhabitants of Iceland exhibit a striking instance of what may be effected by Moral Principles and Industrious Habits. The extent to which knowledge is diffused in Iceland is scarcely credible. It is not uncommon to hear a youth quote a Greek or Latin author, and, in aimost every but, there is some person capable of conversing well upon subjects far above the understanding of persons of the same grade in other countries. Indeed, "the instruction of his children," observes a recent traveller, "forms one of the stated occupations of

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the Icelander; and, while the little hut which he inhabits is almost buried in the snow, and while darkness and desolation are spread universally around, the light of an oil lamp illumines the page from which he reads to his family the lessons of knowledge, religion, and virtue."

230. CHIEF TOWNS, ISLANDS, &c .- Pop. of Towns only in thousands.

Aal'borg, in Jutland, a seaport, p. 10.
Aar'huns, in Jutland, a seaport, p. 11.
Born'holm, a fine island, 20 m. by 15 m.
Area, 223 sq. m.; pop. 29,300.
COPENHAGEN, in Zesland, the cap, with
much trade, p. 185.
Eisinöre, a seaport, in the narrowest
part of the Sound.
Here the dues from
all merchant ships were formerly collected, p. 8.
Pal'ster, a fertile isle, 30 m. by 2 m. to
13 m.; p. 23,200.

Fub'nen, a fertile isle, between the Gress and Little Belts, 49 m. by 38 m. Area, 1,128, 39, m.; pop., 205,800.
Las'land, a fertile isle, 40 m. by 14 m. Area, 63 ag. m.; pop., 86,500.
Odensee', cap. of Fuhnen, with great trade, p. 14.
Randers, in Jutland, a seaport, p. 9.
Roskilde, in Zealand, with a cath., the burial-place of the Danish Kings, p. 4.
Sound, The, a strait bet. Sweden and Zealand, only 3 m. seross.

LESSON 99.—HISTORY. 231a.—The ancient inhabitants of Denmark were called Cimbri, a branch of the Normans or Scandinavians, and the country, Cheronosus Cimbrica. The country was divided into petty States, under different Chiefs or Kings; the inhabitants were fierce and warlike, and their chief occupation was piracy. In the 8th century, the Danes, with their brethren the Swedes and Norwegians, made frequent piratical descents on England, France, and the adjacent countries, in portions of which they formed permanent settlements. In the 10th century, Christianity was introduced, which, along with other causes, tended to soften the manners of the people. In 1016, Canute, surnamed the Great, became King of Denmark, England, and part of Scotland, and in 1030, of Norway. His successors, however, were unable to preserve all these dominions. On the death of Olaf 4th, his mother, Marquareta, frequently styled from her courage and wisdom, the Northern Semir'dmis, ascended the throne of Denmark. She acquired Norway by inheritance, and, having subdued Sweden by force of arms, united the three kingdoms under one crown, by the Union of Calmaki, in 1897.

- b. In 1448, the ancient line of Kings having become extinct, the Danish Diet elected to the throne Christian 1st, Count of Oldenburg, in whose family the royal dignity remained for more than four centuries. By this election, the provinces of Eleswick and Holstein were united to the crown of Denmark, the first immediately, and the latter in 1761. In 1528, in the reign of Frederick 1st, LUTHERANISM was introduced, and Romanism suppressed in 1837, when the church lands were annexed to the crown. In 1660, a remarkable Revolution took place. The three estates of the realm, nobility, clergy, and burgesses, being assembled in Diet, to devise means for discharging the debts incurred by a war with Charles 10th of Sweden, the nobility endeavoured to lay the whole burden on the commons. This being naturally resisted led to angry disputes, when the clergy and commons suddenly resolved upon rendering the crown, which had hitherto been elective, hereditary. To this the nobles were compelled to assent. Shortly afterwards a new constitution was framed, entitled 'the Royal Law of Denmark,' which was established by an edict. By this law, the Succession was settled on the King's eldest son, and on failure of male issue, in the female line. By this edict, also, the Royal Power, which had hitherto been limited, was declared absolute, as the king could dispense with midlares. In 1720, Sweden ceded to Denmark the right of the Sound Dues; and the claim of Denmark to the Soverring of the Peasantry, and gradually extended the Liberty of the Press.
- c. During the Wars of the French Revolution, Denmark observed a strict neutrality; but having resisted the right of searching mercantile cessels claimed by England, she suffered a naval Defeat off Copenhagen in 1801, and soon afterwards, the loss of her East and West Indian Colonies. The Colonies were restored by a subsequent treaty. In the Treaty of Thirt, however, in 1807, secret articles having stipulated that the whole Danish navy should be delivered over to the French Emperor, the English Government were compelled.

to demand the immediate surrender of the fleet to England. On the refusal of Denmark to comply, Copenhagen was bombarded and the fleet taken to England. At the Peace of 1814, Denmark was compelled to cede Norwey to Sweden, and receive in lieu of it Swediah Pomeronic and Rugen. These latter were in 1815 ceded by her to Prussia in exchange for Lauenburg and a sum of money. She also ceded Heligoland to England, and in 1845 sold her East Indian and African Colonies to England.

d. The next event which disturbed the peace of Denmark was the disputed Succession to the Duchies of Sleswick and Holstkin, which, in the event of the reigning sovereign's not leaving a direct male herr, would require to be settled according to the Saite Law, and not according to the Danish. In 1848, the Duchies having resolved on separating from Denmark called in the sid of the Germans. This led to several sanguinary conflicts, in which the malconents were headed by the Duke of Augustenburg and assisted by Prussia. On the intervention of Austria, however, the revolt was ultimately suppressed. To prevent future disquietude, the Succession to the Duchies as well as to the throne of Denmark was settled in 1822, by the Trasty of London, and signed by England, France, Austria, Prussia, Bussia, Sweden, and Denmark. By this treaty, the line of Augustenburg was set saide, and the Duke of Augustenburg, with the full consent of his son, then 24 years of age, solemnly engaged to forego all claims on the crown for hinuself and his heirs, in consideration of receiving \$60,000l, which was paid to him. The Succession was then settled on Prince Christian (the 4th son of Duke Wilhelm of Sleswick-Holstein-Sonderburg-Ghicksburg, a descendant of Christian 3rd), and to the direct male descendants of his union with Princess Louise of Hesse Cassel, grand-daughter of King Christian succeeded to the throne, according to the treaty. But, in direct violation of the treaty, which they had themselves signed, Prussia and Austria invaded Denmark in 1864, and succeeded in wresting from the courage-one little nation the provinces of Skewick, Holstein, Lauenburg, and the ight of Misser. In less than two years after this, Austria was compelled by the Treaty of Vienna, Aug. 20, 1868, to cede these districts to the victorious Prussians, with whose dominions they are now incorporated. In March 1863, Albert Ridward, Prince of Walses, married Princess Alexandra, eldest daughter of King Christian.

LESSON 100 .- SWEDEN AND MORWAY.

- 232a. Physical.—Sweden and Norway, though united since 1814 under one Sovereign, are independent countries, each governed according to its own laws.
- b. Sweden (Swedes) forms the Eastern and larger portion of the Scandinavian Peninsula. The area is 170,621 sq. m.; Pop. in 1867, 4,195,600; Cap. STOCKHOLM.
- c. Seas, Gulfe, \$c.—Gulf of Bothnia, Baltic Sea, the Sound, Kattegat, and Skager-Rack.
- d. Chief Islands.—Goth-land (ar. 1,214 sq. m., Pop. 50,000), and Oeland (ar. 608 sq. m., Pop. 33,000) in the Baltic.
- 233a. Surface.—The Northern part of Sweden is diversified with mountains, deep valleys, and glens, alternating with sandy deserts and vast forests. The Central Region contains extensive plateaux or table-lands covered with forests. In the South the country becomes more flat, containing many verdant plains and cultivated fields; along the shores are many marshy tracts, and in the interior are numerous Lakes.
- Mountains.—The Scandinavian Alps or Dof'frine Hills, between Norway and Sweden.

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These differ from the Alps and Pyrenees, in not being a continuous chain of summits, but a succession of elevated plateaux, from 20 to 30 miles across; the loftiest point is 6,500 ft. above sea-level.

- c. Chief Rivers.—Tornēa, An'german, Umēa, Indals, and the Dal.
- d. Lakes.—Wen'er (ar. 2,015 sq. m.), Wetter (ar. 716 sq. m.), Māēler (ar. 472 sq. m.), and Hielmar (ar. 187 sq. m.).
- 234a. Climate.—In Sweden there are, properly speaking, only two Seasons, a Summer, short and hot, and a Winter, long and cold, but dry, and milder than in countries further East. In the North the winter continues about 7 or 8 months, in the Central and Southern districts about 5. On the whole the Climate is conducive both to health and longevity, and the country is free from contagious diseases.
- b. During Winter, travelling is usually performed in sledges, drawn either by horses or reindeer. The West Coasts are more mild and moist than the East. The chief defect in the Climate is the occurrence of frosts in Aug. and Sept. by which injury is done to the crops.

At Stockholm, the mean Temp. of Wint. is 20°; Spring, 38°; Sum., 60°; Aut., 44°. At Gottenburg, do. Wint. is 31°; Spring, 48°; Sum., 62°; Aut., 47°. The Rainfull is much less than in Norway, being at Upsals only 16 inches.

- 235a. Soil, &c.—The greater portion of the Soil in Sweden is poor, and the climate is too cold, except, perhaps, in the South, for ripening the finer and more valuable kinds of grain and fruits. In the country between Lake Wetter and the Baltic, however, there is much fertile land which is diligently cultivated. The Forests occupy above a fourth of the entire surface.
- b. Minerals.—Sweden is rich in Minerals. Among these are iron, considered the best in Europe, copper, zinc, cobalt, lead, antimony, alum, nitre, sulphur, and a little gold and silver, with marble, alabaster, and limestone. Iron, copper, and lead, are the most valuable, of which there are many extensive mines, principally in the central provinces.
- c. Among Wild Animals are the bear and wolf, chiefly confined to the North, the lynx, fox, marten, squirrel, and lemming, of which last large numbers sometimes leave their abodes in Lapland, and visit the fertile districts in the South, where they commit great damage to the crops.
- 236. Political Divisions.—Sweden consists of 3 large Provinces, namely—1. Norrland, with Lapland in the North; 2. Swedland, or Sweden Proper, in the Centre; 3. Gothland, or Gothia, in the South. These are subdivided into 24 Governments, or Läne, of which 4 are in Norrland, 8 in Sweden Proper, and 12 in Gothland.

Provinces.

1. Norriand . . . Gefie, 12; Sundsval, 5.
2. Sweden Proper Stockholm, 133; Upskia, 9; Orebro, 9; Nyköping, 5; Fahlun, 5,
(Gottenburg, 45; Norrkoping, 22; Malmöe, 31; Lund, 9; Calmar, 9;
3. Gothland . . . Jonköping, 9; Helsingborg, 6; Landscrona, 7; Christianstad, e;
Wisby, 6.

237a. Industrial Pursuits.—Agriculture, &c.—About three-fifths of the population are occupied in Agriculture and cattle-frearing, and one-third of these are owners of the land which they

- cultivate. Since 1815 great encouragement has been given to this branch, and to the establishment of *Model Farms*, managed by British Agriculturists. A decided improvement has been the result, so that Sweden is now enabled to export corn.
- b. The chief Products are rye, barley, oats, wheat, potatoes, pease, hemp, and many of the common fruits of West Europe. In the South, rye is the most cultivated; in the North, barley according to the Latitude; in this part, also, potatoes supply the deficiency of corn. Moss forms the common food of the reindeer. In the Central and Southern Provinces, the pastures are extensive, and dairy produce abundant.
- c. All the domestic animals are carefully reared, oxen, sheep, goats, horses, pigs, and poultry, but they are inferior to those of England and France. d. The Fisheries form an important branch of industry, particularly of the herring, stremming, and salmon.
- 238a. Manufactures, &c.—As Sweden is principally an agricultural country, the Manufactures are chiefly of a domestic kind, which, including the making of implements of husbandry and articles of furniture, occupy the peasants during the long winter evenings.
- b. The following manufactures are chiefly carried on by foreigners:—woollen and cotton goods, flannels, serges, sail-cloth, glass, paper, earthenware, soap, leasther, and candles. There are many distilleries and ship-building establishments. Many persons, also, are employed in Mining, smetting iron, in the Fisheries, and in working in the Forests. The internal trade is extensive. C. The Exports to Great Britain consist of iron, timber, copper, alum, tar, cobalt, wheat, and casts; the value of which in 1863 was 4,892,000l. The Imports from Great Britain include sugar, coffee, tea, wines, silk, wool, cotton, hemp, hides, oll, coal, machinery, hardware, porcelain, and woollen manufactures; the value of these in 1869 was 1,478,000l. d. The main Roads are generally good; the cross-roads are much neglected. In the South there are several Canals. Of Railecays, about 665 miles are open. c. Chief Ports-Nasod—Carlscröns, Stockholm, Gottenburg; Commercial—Stockholm, Gefie, Nord-köping, Malmöe.
- The Government is a limited Monarchy, hereditary in the male line, with a representative Diet. The King must be a Lutheran; his person is inviolable.
- b. The Diet or Representative Assembly consists of two separate houses or chambers:—1. An Upper House, consisting of 137 members, elected for 9 years, each of whom must be above 38 years of age, and possessed either of landed property to the amount of 4,5001., or of an annual income of 223. 2. The Lower House consists of 188 members, elected for 3 years, by Ballot, all of whom must be Protestants, above the age of 25, possessed of real property to the value of 561., or having an income of 461. a year. These latter have their travelling expenses paid, and receive a salary for each session of 4 months. The diet assembles every year, voting the Budget for the same period. No new tax can be levied, nor any modification of the constitution be legally effected without the concurrence of the Diet.
- c. Public Revenue in 1869 was 2,811,000L; Expenditure, 2,427,000L; Public Bett, 6,063,000L. d. Personal Preedom is subject to several restrictions, and to rather heavy taxation. Military Revues for the regular army is voluntary, but for the Local Militia is compulsory on every male adult between the age of 20 and 25. Substitution is permitted at a cost of from 10L to 25L. The Army in 1869 amounted to 144,000 men; the Naoy was manned by 6,400 saliors.
- 240. Religion.—The Religion is Lutheran, and the church episcopal, governed by 1 archbishop, 11 bishops, and about 3,009

inferior clergy. All religious denominations are tolerated, but only Lutherans are eligible to any employment under the State.

241a. Education.—In Sweden, elementary education is in a very advanced state. There are upwards of 3,000 Elementary Schools; in the Provincial Capitals there are, in addition, High Schools, or Gymnasia. The Universities are those of Upsala and Lund. At these universities, however, the discipline is far too lax to merit commendation. Attendance at the primary schools is not compulsory, but every adult must give proof of ability to read the Scriptures before he can exercise an act of majority.

b. The Press is free by law. The Arts and Sciences are successfully cultivated. Among the distinguished men may be mentioned Linnseus, Bergman, Puffendorf, and Berzelius, the chemist.

242a. Race, Language, and Character.— The Swedes and Norwegians are of the same race; but speak different dialects of a language which is radically the same, derived from the Autonic. b. The pop. is thinly scattered, being only 21 persons per square mile.

c. People.-In the South and Central parts of the kingdom, the Swedes are c. People.—In the south and central parts of the kingdom, the swedes are at all, fine, and robust race of men, with fair complexions, light hair, and blue eyes. But beyond 63° Lat. these characteristics disappear, and the people become stunted and swarthy. The houses in the country are mostly constructed of wood, but commodious and comfortable. The peasants are well clad in strong cloth of their own weaving. In National Character, the Swedes are considered honest, frank, brave, and even ceremonically polite. In several districts, however, the vice of intoxication is prevalent.

243. The only Foreign Possession is St. Bartholomew in the West Indies.

244. CHIEF TOWNS AND PLACES .- Pop. of Towns in thousands.

Cal'mar, a scaport, cel. for a Treaty in

1397, p. 9. Carlscro'na, the chief station of the Swedish navy, p. 16. Fah'lun, nr. are rich copper mines, p. 5

Gef'le (pef'-fl, g hard), a scaport, with great trade, p. 12. Got'tenburg, an important seaport, with

manf. of woollens, sail-cloth, p. 45.
Mal'möe, a strong seaport, with manf. of woollens, p. 22.

Nord-köping, seaport, manf, of woollens,

giores, paper, p. 23.
STOCK'HOLM, the cap. of Sweden, and chief emporium of trade; buriar place of Linnsons and Gustavus Vass, r. 183. Upsāla.

a cel. university, with many

Upshia, a cell university, with many manfa, p. 9. Why, in Gothland, once a great commercial empurium, p. 6.

245c. LAPLAND.—Lapland is a large and barren region, extending on the North of Norway, Sweden, and Finland. The estimated Area is about 150,000 sq. miles, the Eastern portion of which, containing about two-thirds, belongs to Russia; the remainder to Sweden and Norway. The estimated pop. of Lapland in Norway is about 5,000; in Sweden 4,000; in Russia about 9,000.

b. The Country is mountainous; the Climate, though intensely cold in winter, is very hot in summer. The Sun is not seen by the inhabitants from Nov. 17 to Jan. 26, or for two months ten days; but, in return for this privation, the sun to Jan. 28, or for two montes ten days; out, in recurn for this privation, the sun shines constantly from May 15 to July 29; during which time there is an uninterrupted continuance of daylight. In the absence of the sun, the *durorg Borealis*, which sheds a dim red light over the plains, enables the inhabitants to travel in their sledges along the frozen mow with safety. The reindeer, a swift and hardy animal, supplies the place of the horse to the Laplander; while its flesh and milk furnish him with food, and its skin with clothing.

c. The Laplanders or Lapps are a very small race, rarely exceeding five feet in height. They live in low huts built of stones and turf, recembling a baker's oven in shape, with a hole in the top, to serve both for window and chimney. The Bible was translated into the language of Lapland about 100 years ago; and the people, who are very simple and gentle in their manners, attend with paper to the instructions of the missionaries sent among them.

130 627

- EMSSON 102.—HISTORY. 246a.—Sweden, the Eastern and larger portion of the Scandinavian Peninsula, was the native country of the warlike Gorus, who under the name of Northmen, Norsemen, or Norman, committed so many cruel devastations on the adjacent countries in the early part of the Christian Era. It was for a long time divided into several kingdoms, which were ultimately united into one about the 12th century. In 1397, Margaret, Queen of Demnark, united under her sway, by the famous Treasy of Calmar, the three Kingdoms of Demnark, Sweden, and Norway. In 14th, the Swedes and Norwegians renounced this union and elected a separate King, Kari Knutsen, Charles the son of Canute. In 1292, Christian 2nd King of Denmark was declared King of Sweden. His cruelty, however, was so great that a Revolt took place headed by a nobleman named GUNTAVUS REIGKSON YON VABA, who, in 1523, was elected King, by the unanimous voice of the people.
- b. Previously to the nomination of Gustavus, the crown had been elective; the power of the King was very limited; and the revenues barely sufficient to insintain 500 soldiers. The Royal Domasine, which had originally been only rented by the Nobles, were now cladined as hereditary, held by force, and no rentals paid; while the Bonnish Bishops, aboots, and clergy possessed half the constry without paying any taxes. Most of the Bishops, too, lived in Baronial Castles, defended by armed retainers, while the burgesses and labourers were heavily oppressed. Soon, however, a mighty change was effected. The assembled states, grateful to their deliverer for his expulsion of the King of Denmark, coluntarily iscreased the Boyal Puter, by empowering the King of Denmark, voluntarily iscreased the Boyal Puter, by empowering the King of make peace and war, and take such measures as would protect him and the nation against a Pretender who had been set up in opposition. Armed with this power, and having embraced the doctrines of Luther, Gustavas proured an Act which ordsined that the Bishops should immediately disband their troops, surrender their castles, and renit a large portion of their Tithes for the maintenance of Hospitals and of the Army during war. The King next visited various districts to see the Act enforced; required the Bishops and Abbott to show the Titles by which they held their lands; compelled them to restore to their original owners sensify 18,000 considerable Farms; and reduced their revenues above two-thirds. Able Lutheran Divines accompanied the King in his searching bour, and zealously disseminated the doctrines of the Reformation, till in 1529 the Lutheran Confession of Asphorts as solumnly adopted as the Standard of Faish by the King and people, and Romanism abolished. Several insurrections, as might be expected, occurred in consequence of these changes, particularly that of the Delecaritons in Sweden Proper, but they were all quickly suppressed. Shortly after this, the crown was, by the free consent of
- c. The first acts of Gusiavus Adolphus (1611-32) on his coming to the throne were directed to the improvement of his hingdom, in which he was ably assisted by his minister Ozenstierus. Soon, however, he was attacked by Russia and Poland whom he successfully repulsed, compelling Russia to cede Inarria and Poland in 1617; and Poland in 1629 to cede Biga, Licosia, and Polth Prussia to Sweden. By these successes, combined with his reputation for ability, integrity, and firmness, he was appointed Commander-in-chief of the German Protestants in their struggle against imperial Austria, who, instigated by the Pope, was endeavouring to crush Civil and Religious Liberty in Germany. Gustavus Adolphus landed in Pomerania, June 1630, with only 8,000 men; shortly afterwards, he was reinforced by 6 English and Scotch regiments under the Duke of Hamilton. With this small force, he conquered Pomerania in 1630. In the following year, having received additional reinforcements, he completely defeated the Austrians under Count Tilly at Breitenjed near Leipsio, Sept. 1631. In a second battle, in which Tilly was slain, he overthrew them near the river Loch, April, 1632. The third great battle, in which the Austrians were commanded by Wallenstein, was fought at Lutern. Nov. 6, 1632. Before engaging, Gustavus gave out Luther's bymn, and then led his cavalry into the thickest of the fight. He was shot dead early in the battle, but his army gained a splendid victory. By the death of Gustavus Adolphus, the Protestants lost a decided friend, as the state of the state of the cavalry into the thickest of the fight.

carnest Christian, and a most successful Commander; while his country lost an able statesman, an enlightened sovereign, and a noble-minded patriot. His daughter Christian succeeded at the age of 6 years (1632 to 1634), and, under the faithful guardianship of Oxenstiers, continued the war successfully to its conclusion. By a war, also, against Denmark (1643-45), Sweden acquired the isle of Eugen. At the General PEACE of WERTPHALIA in 1648, after a war of 30 years continuance, the Civil and Religious Liberty of the German Protestants was secured; with the annexation to Sweden of Rugen, Powerunia, and Bremen, and the annexad rights as a State of the German Empire.

In 1654 Christina abdicated the throne in favour of her consin Charles Gustarus (1654-60), who renewed the war with Poland and Denmark; and obtained from Denmark in 1668 the cession of Scassis, a district in South Sweden, now called Malmöe and Christianstad. At his death, Charles 11th succeeded (1660-87), and concluded the long contest with Poland at the peace of Oliva in 1660, when Livonia, Esthonia, and Oesel, were ceded to Sweden. In 1693 the Royal Power was declared Absolute by an act of the Dist. The King died in 1697, leaving his dominions in a high state of prosperity to his son, the celebrated Charles 12th, then only 18 years of age.

- d. GEARLES 12TH (1697-1718).—The youth and inexperience of the new King tempted the sovereigns of Denmark, Russia, and Poland to form a Coalition for seizing spon his fairest provinces. The energy and intrepidity of Charles, however, surprised both friends and foes. Putting himself at the head of his army, be suddenly attacked Denmark, besisged Copenhagen, and compelled the King in six weeks to sue for peace and abandon his allies. He next invaded Brasia, and with a small army of 8,000 men utterly routed the Russian army of 40,000 men utget rhe Csar Peter, at Narva, 95 miles from Petersburg. He then invaded Poland; and after defeating the Poles in several engagements, compelled the King in the Stanislaus Lescinati in his place. In 1708, Charles, for the second time, invaded Russia; but this step proved fatal to his ambition. For, though by his skill and intrepidity he gained a victory at Smolensko, on Sept. 28, 1708, yet, by imprudently wintering in the Utraine, his army was so reduced by cold, went, and sickness, that it scarcely mustered 25,000 men in the following spring. With this force he laid siege to Paltons on the Vorskia, a city which Casar Peter (who had learned wisdom from his former defeats) was determined to relieve with 60,000 well-equipped and well-disciplined troops. The decisive battle of Paltons was fought July 8, 1709, which ended in the complete defeat of the Swedes. With difficulty, Charles escaped with 400 horsemen to Beader in Turkey. After remaining 5 years in Turkey, a peace was concluded in 1714, when Charles regained his liberty and returned to his own dominions. In 1718, while endeavouring to recover his former power, he fell at the slege of Frederickshall in Norway, leaving his kingdom on the verge of ruin. His sister, Utrica-Cleonors succeeded (1718-20), but was compelled to renounce several of the royal percogatives. She then resigned in favour of her husband Frederick of Hessel-Cassel (1720-51). At the treaty of Nystad, 1721, Sweden purchased peace with the peace of Abo, in 1743,
- c. Adolphus Frederick, who reigned 1751-71, was succeeded by his son Gustasus 3rd (1771-92). In 1772, Gustavus repealed the Constitution of 1720, and re-established the Royal Power as it existed in 1880. In this reign, the Press was declared free and the use of torture abolished. In 1792, Gustavus was shot at a masked ball, by an assassin named Ankerstroem, who was immediately seized and soon after executed. Gustavus 4th, then a minor, succeeded (1792-1809). At first, Gustavus formed an alliance with England and Russia against Napoleon 1st, but, after the treaty of Titit, June 1807, Russia turned against Sweden, seized on Finland, and in 1809, on Tornez and the Aland Isles. At these misfortunes, Gustavus was by a military conspiracy deposed; and in March 1899, his uncle, the duke of Sudermania was elevated to the throne as Charles 18th (1809-18), to the exclusion of the son of Gustavus. To purchase peace, nowever, the new monarch was compelled to confirm the cession of Finland, and the Aland Isles to Bussia in 1809. In 1810, in consequence of the age of the King and the sudden death of Prince Christian of Holstein Augustenburg, who had been declared Crown Prince and Successor, the Diet elected Bernandotte, one of the ablest generals of Napoleon 1st, and a man of excellent private character, Coww Prince. Bernadotts accepted the honour, and, at first, carried on war against England; but, in 1812, his attachment to his adopted country led him to join the allies against Napoleon in the ear of Liberation of Germany, and in 1813, he rendered such signal services, that in 1814 Sweden

was rewarded with the acquisition of Norway; at the same time she ceded Pomeranis to Denmark. On the death of Charles 18th, in 1818, Bernadotte succeeded to the throne as Charles John 14th. His reign was marked by the prosperity of Eweden and Norway. At his death in 1844, his son Occar succeeded (1844-59), and at Occar's death in 1859, his son, Charles 18th, the present sovereign, succeeded.

LESSON 103,-NORWAY.

- 247a. PHYSICAL.—NORWAY (Norwegians) is an extensive barren country, formerly belonging to Denmark; but, in 1814, was ceded to Sweden as an indemnity for the loss of Finland, which in 1809 had been seized by Russia. Area, 123,297 sq. miles; Pop. 1,702,000; Cap. CHRISTIANA.
- b. Seas, Inlets, &c.—The Arctic and Atlantic Oceans, the Fiords of Varanger, Porsanger, West, Trondhjem or Drontheim, Hardanger, Bukke, and the Gulf of Christiana.
- c. Islands.—Mageröe, Tromsöe, Lofoden, and many others. Near the Lofoden Isles, is the Maelstrom, a dangerous whirlpool.
 - d. Capes. Nordkyn, North Cape, and the Naze.
- 248a. Surface.—Norway presents a series of elevated and barren table-lands, called *fields* or *fjelds*, interspersed with numerous mountains, separated from each other by deep narrow valleys.
- b. The Mountains are the Kiölen on the North, between Norway and Sweden; the Dov'rĕfeld in the centre, and the Hardanger, south of that range.
- c. The Rivers are numerous, but not navigable to any distance. The principal are the Glommen, Drammen, and Lougen.
- d. The Lakes also are numerous; the principal are Miosen, 52 m. by 9 m., Randsfiord, 30 m. by 3 m., Bygdinsee, 20 m. by 15 m.
- e. The Coasts are much indented by fords or arms of the sea, which sometimes run 100 miles into the land.
- 249a. Climate.—In Norway there, are only two Seasons, Summer and Winter; Summer lasts from May to Sept., Winter includes the rest of the year. The West Coast, though proverbially damp and rainy, is, on the whole, healthy, except about Bergen. In the Interior, the atmosphere is assully dry and bracing, and favourable to longevity. The Summers are, in general, very pleasant but short, and the changes sudden and extreme.
- b. The mean Annual Temperature at Christiana is 41°; the mean of Winter is 23°; of Summer, 60° Fahr. In Jan and Feb. the Temperature is frequently from 14° to 18° Fahr, while in Summer it sometimes reaches 100° Fahr. Sowing, ripening, and reaping rarely require more than from eight to twelve weeks. The Eastyall on the West averages 60 inches; at Bergen, 73 inches.
- 250a. Soil, &c.—The Soil in general is thin and poor, though there are a few districts near Bergen and Drontheim of tolerable fertility.
- b. The Minerals are valuable, comprising iron, copper, silver, and cobalt, From the difficulty of transport, however, and the want of fuel, Mining is a branch of industry not much developed.
- c. Of Wild Animals, the brown bear, wolf, lynx, and fox, are the most destructive. Game is abundant.

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251. Polymeal Divisions.—Norway is divided into 5 large governments, or stifts, which coincide with the 5 Ecclesiastical Dioceses. These are sub-divided into 17 Provinces, or Amts, and shees into 45 bailwicks.

Governments or Dioceses.	Chief Towns. Pop. in Thousands.
	CHRISTIANA, 65: Drammen, 18; Frederickshald, 7. Christiansand, 10: Stavenger, 16.
3. Bergen	Bergen, 30. Drontheim.
5. Norland	Tromsoc, 3; Hammerfest, 1.

- 252a. Industrial Pursuits.— Agriculture, &c.— Agriculture forms one of the great sources of wealth, though it is in a backward state. Cattle-rearing forms another important branch of rural industry; oxen, sheep, goats, and horses are pretty numerous.
- b. The principal Products are cats and barley, the next are rye, flax, and potatoes. The ordinary garden fruits are carefully cultivated, and in the South peaches and apricots are grown. There are vast forests of fir, pine, oak, and birch. Fish and game are abundant, and the coasts swarm with sea-fowl.
- 253a. Manufactures, fc.—The Manufactures are chiefly of a domestic kind, cloth, linen, cotton, leather, glass, paper, and gunpowder forming the principal. Ship-building and brandy-distilling are extensively carried on. The seats of Industry are generally on the sea-coast. Fishing forms an important branch.
- b. The principal Exports to Great Britain are timber, fish, salted herrings, train-oil, iron, copper, and silver; the value of which in 1868 was 1,828,0004. The Imports from Great Britain are coffee, sugar, tobacco, corn, tea, spices, wines, earthenware, hardware, and some manufactured goods, the value of which in 1868 was 774,8001. c. The Reads in the South-West are pretty good, but others are in general poor. The means of internal communication both by land and water are scanty. Fairs are held at certain seasons at which all necessaries are purchased; for there are no weekly markets. Provisions are cheep. There is a Railway between Christiana and Lake Mids'en; and another between Christiana and Carlstad. d. The chief Ports are Christiana, Christiansand, Bergen, Fredericksvorm, and Drammen.
- 254a. Social Condition.—Government.—Though Norway is under the same Sovereign as Sweden, it is independent in its Constitution and Laws, and more democratic. In both countries the Executive Power is vested in the Sovereign. The Stor-thing, or Legislative Assembly, consists of about 100 members, of whom one-third are elected by the towns, and the rest by the rural districts.
- b. The Stor-thing which now meets annually, divides itself when assembled into an Upper house, called Lag-thing, consisting of one-fourth of the Stor-thing, and a Lower one, called Clag-thing, similar to our houses of Lords and Commons. The Stor-thing settles the taxes to be levied, emacts, alters, and repeals the laws. During session, every member of the Stor-thing has an allowance of about 6s. 6d. per day. Every Norwegian above 25 years of age, and possessed of property to the value of 30l. can elect or be elected, c. The Revenue in 1869 was 1,116,000l.; the Public Debt was 674,900l. d. Personal Freedom in Norway is very ample, being restdeted only by law. Trial by jury is an anacient institution. The Feudal System never existed in Norway. e. Military Service, however, is required of all men between 18 and 45 years of age, to serve in the Militis for 3 years, when they undergo a drill of a few weeks in each year. The Army amounts to 12,200 men; the Nowy is manned by 2,200 sailors. Every Parish is obliged to support its own really indigent poor.
- 255. Religion.—The Religion is Episcopal Lutheranism, but much ceremony remains in the forms of worship. Norway is divided

into 5. Bishoprics and 902 parishes. All denominations are tolerated; except Jesuits, Monks, and Jews, who are excluded. The Norwegian clergy are, as a class, considered virtuous, enlightened, and diligent in the discharge of their duties.

256. Education.—In every Parish, there is a Primary School, in which reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, and sometimes grammar and geography are taught. Besides these, there are in towns higher schools, and in 13 towns are Burgher, or first-class schools. Sunday-schools have been widely established. Christiana is the seat of a University. The Press is entirely free.

257a. Race, Language, Character.—Nearly all the inhabitants are Northmans or Normans. The Norwegian or Norse Language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and nearly the same as the Swedish and Danish. b. The Country is shirily populated, having only 11 persons to a Square Mile. c. In Stature, the Norwegians are in general short, but well-made and muscular. Their complexions are fair, resembling the Danes. In Character, they are frank spirited, and undaunted, and very respectful in their behaviour. Though fond of music, dancing, and dramatic entertainments, their leading characteristics are labour and frugality.

258. CHIEF TOWNS .-- Pop. in thousands.

Der gen, a seaport, bishop's see, manfs. of carthenware, an early mem. of the Hanseatic League, p. 30.
CHRISTIĀNA, cap. of Norway, a university, bishop's see, manfs. of woollens, p. 63. Ber'gen, a seaport, bishop's see, manfs. Christiansand', a scaport, bishop's see, Christiansund, seaport, good harbour,

Dramm'en, seaport, great export of timber, fron, &c., p. 14.
Dron'thelm or Trond'helm, once the cap.
of Norway, seaport, bishop's see; near are rich copper mines, p. 19.
Fred'erickshald, in Aggerhuus, at the slege of which Charies 12th of Sweden was killed in 1713, p. 7.
Konss'berg, celebrated for its silver mines.

mines.

259. HISTORY.—Norway forms the Western part of the Scandinavian Peninsula, and is one of the original seats of the Northmen, the ancestors of the Normans, who, along with their brethren, the Swedes and Danes, made frequent descents, in the Middle Ages, on the coasts of England, Scotland, and France. Christianity was introduced in the 10th Century. In 1887, Normany was annexed to Denmark, to which it remained attached till 1814; when, in opposition to the wishes of the Norwegians, it was annexed by the allied Powers to Sweden, as an indemnity for Finland, which had been seized by Russia. It was, however, declared a free and independent country, preserving its own laws, and only coverned by the same king as Sweden. only governed by the same king as Sweden.

LESSON 104,—THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

260. THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE comprises :-

	Sq. Miles.	Pop.
1. Russia in Europe, with Poland and Finland	2,049,129	68,196,920
2. Cle-Caucasia	170,790	4,257,704
3. Russia in Asia, exc. of Caucasia	5,586,588	4,070,938
Total	7,805,502	76,525,562

In addition to the above, are the Aleutian, or Fox Islands. Russian America, now Alaska, was sold in 1867 to the United States for 7,000,000 dols. = 1,439,000,

RUSSIA IN EUROPEL

261a. Physical.—Russia in Europe contains 1.852.504 sq. m.; Poland, 49,555 sq. m.; Finland, 146,070 sq. m.; total.

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- 2,048,129 sq. m. Pop. 68,196,920. Cap. Petersburg. Anc. Cap. Moscow.
- b. Seas, Gulfs, &c.—The Arctic Ocean, Gulf of Kara, Strait of Waigatz, Gulf of Tcheskaia, White Sea (with Gulfs of Archangel, Onega, and Kandalak) on the North; the Baltic Sea, Gulfs of Botani'a, Finland, and Riga on the West; Black Sea, Gulf of Perekop, Strait of Yenikaleh, Sea of Asof, and the Caspian Sea on the South.
- c. The Islands are Vaigatz, Nova Zembla, Spitzbergen, and Kolguev, in the Arctic Ocean; Dāgo, Ōesel (ō-sel), and Aland in the Baltic Sea.
 - d. Capes.-Ruskoi and Kanin.
- 262a. Surface.—With the exception of small portions on the N.W., on the South, and on the East border, the whole interior of Russia is one vast Plais without any mountains, low near the rivers, and only a little elevated as we recede from them. The North is covered with marshes and forests; the North-West consists of elevated land abounding with rocks and lakes; the Central Portion contains a wide plain of fertile land, interspersed with numerous swamps and extensive forests. On the South-East, between the Don and the Caspian Sea, are extensive deserts, or steppes, containing more than 300,000 sq. m., consisting of sandy plains and salt lakes. On the East, approaching the Ural Mountains, the land is elevated and diversified.
- b. Mountains.—The Valdai Hills (val'-day) on the W., 1,200 ft.; the Ural Mountains (ōō'-ral) on the East, 6,800 ft.; the Caucăsus on the S.E., of which the highest point is Elburz, 18,493 ft.; and the Tschatir-Dagh in the Crimēa, 6,500 ft.
- c. Rivers.—On the N., Petchöra, Mēzen, Northern Dwīna, and Onēga; on the W., the Nēva, Southern Dwina, the Niëmen (nēēmen), and the Vistŭla; on the S., the Dniester (nēēs-ter), Bug, Dniēper (nee-per), and the Dun; on the E., the Volga, or Wolga.
- d. Lakes.—Lădōga, Önēga, Ilmen, Bieloe, and numerous Lakes in Finland.
- 263a. Climate.—In so extensive a region there is much diversity of Climate. It may be stated, in general, that the Climate of Russia is much colder than that of other European countries in the same parallel of Latitude, and the cold increases as we proceed Fasturad.
- b. In the North, from 62° to 67°, the Summer is brief but hot; the Winter long and severe, when the temperature is below freezing point for several months, so that the surface is always frozen. This season, however, is frequently relieved by clear monlight nights and the Aurora Borealis. From Lat. 57° N. to Lat. 63° N., within which St. Petersburg lies, the air is milder than in the Northern Division. In Winter, during Dec. and Jan., the temperature is frequently below zero, and from Nov. to March the cold is so great that the Neva is generally frozen during those months. This season, however, is not considered unhealthy; for the air, though cold, is generally pure and bracing, and its severity is guarded against by warm clothing and comfortable houses. During the Summer of this district, the thermometer frequently rises to 90° Fab. In the regions South of 57° N. Lat., the Temperature becomes gradually warmer as we proceed south-

wardly. Here, the heat in Summer is frequently overpowering, the Antumn is late, and the Winter short but severe. Assums is considered the most unpleasant season in Russia. c. The Raisfall in Russia is only scanty; it is most abundant in the Baltic Provinces; but even there, the sverage assual fall is only about 20 inches. The amount and frequency decrease in proceeding from West to East. In the Southern provinces during the long summer, rain seldom falls.

264a. Soil.—The Soil comprises every variety; much is unfit for cultivation. North of 64° N. Lat. nothing but moss is produced; South of 64° N. Lat. to 60° N. are extensive Forests; between 60° and 58° N. Lat. moderate pasturage is found. The countries of Central Russia (particularly the middle portion on the Upper Volga, and as far as the deserts between the Sea of Azof and the Caspian) are the most fertile in Russia. The tract between the Sea of Azof and the Caspian is little better than a desert.

b. Minerals.—The East part of Russia is rich in Minerals. In the Ural Mts. there are numerous Mines, consisting of gold, silver, iron, copper, and platins. In working these, water is the chief motive power. Coal has been discovered in the gov. of Moscow, also near the sea of Asot, and at Kharkof on the Donets. Great attention is paid to improvements in mining. The Miners are represented as being very intelligent and industrious. c. The Wild Animals are the polar bear, black and brown bears, reindeer, elk, urus, wolf, fox, lynx, beaver, sable, ermine, lemming, &c.

THESON 105.—POLITICAL DIVISIONS. 265.—The Divisions of Russia in Europe have been varied at different times. At present, they comprise 8 Grand Divisions, of which 6 are sub-divided into 51 Governments, nearly all named after their chief towns, and many of which are of vast extent. In addition to these 51 Governments, the Grand Duchy of Finland comprises 9 Governments and the Kingdom of Poland 5 Governments.

. 1. Great Russia, in the North and Centre, contains 19 Governments, namely, (Pop. of towns in thousands):—

Gove. 1. Archangel 2. Olonetz . 2. Vologda 4. Koetroma 5. Jaroslav 6. Novgorod 7. Pakov . 8. Tver . 9. Smolensk 10. Moskva .		Trems. Archangel, 24. Petrosavodsk, 11. Vologda, 14. Koatroms, 21. Jaroslav, 27. Novgorod, 15. Pakov, 8. Tver, 28. Smolensk, 17. Moscow, 352,	Gova. 11. Vladimir 12. Nijni-Novgorod 13. Tambor . 14. Riasan . 15. Toula . 16. Kalonga 17. Orei . 18. Koursk . 19. Voronej .	Thoms. Vladimir, 13. Nijni-Kovgorod, 42. Tambor, 36. Riasan, 22. Toula, 57. Kalouga, 35. Orel, 36. Kourak, 28.
2. The Baltic 20. St. Petersbu (ingria) 21. Esthonia	ırg	ST. PETERSBURG, . Std Revel, 29.		. Riga, 77 Mittau, 28.
3. West Russ 34. Vilna 35. Kovno 36. Vitebek 37. Moghiley	ria c	contains 8 Governmen . Vilna, 69 Kovno, 24 Vitebsk, 28 Moghilev, 48.	ts:	. Minak, 20. . Grodno, 26. . Jitomir, 32. . Kamienets, 20.
4. Little Rus 32. Tchernigov 33. Kiev		n the S.W. contains 4 . Tchernigov, 7. . Kiev, 68.	Governments:	. Poltava, 81. . Kharkov, 62,

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5. South Russia contains 5 Governments :-

٠.	Govs.		Towns,	Gove.	Towns,
	Kherson . Bessarabia	:	Kherson, 40. Odessa, 119. Kishenev, 98.	38. Taurīda 39. Ekaterinoslav 40. Don Cossacks	. Simferopol, 17. . Ekaterinoalav, 19. . Tcherkaak, 20.

6. East Russis contains 11 Governments :-

6. Eas Russe cortains 11 Governments :							
41. Perm 42. Viatka 43. Kazan 44. Simbirak 45. Penza 46. Orenburg	:	Perm, 13. Viatka, 15. Kazan, 63. Simbirsk, 25. Penza, 27. Orenburg, 27.	47. Ufa		. Ufa, 15. . Samăra', 34. . Saratov, 63. . Astrakhan, 48. . Stavropol, 14.		

- 7. The Grand Ducky of Finland is divided into 9 Governments; its chief towns are—Helsingfors, 16; Abo 12.
- 8. The Kingdom of Poland is divided into 5 Governments; the chief towns are Warsaw, 243; Lublin, 21.

LESSON 106.—Industrial Pursuits. 266a.—Agriculture, fc.—In the Northern parts, Agriculture is not much known; in the Central and Southern regions, it is pursued with moderate diligence, but with great want of skill. Government and many of the great landed proprietors have lately given great encouragement to this branch by rendering the occupation of the lands more reasonable, by introducing superior methods of farming, forming societies, and instituting Lectures, Prizes, &c. The recent emancipation of the Serfs or Peasants will also have a beneficial influence.

- b. The chief Products are rye, wheat, barley, maize, rice, hemp, millet, flax, and tobacco. Grapes are grown in the Criméa. c. The Domestic Astmals comprise black cattle, sheep, and horses, which are extensively reared. Camels are kept in large herds by the nomadic tribes.
- 267a. Manufactures, &c. Since 1815, Manufactures have considerably increased. The staple Manufactures are woollens, silks, linens, cottons, metal wares, soap, glass, paper, porcelain, arms, and leather, in the last of which the Russians particularly excel.
- b. The former restrictive policy of Russia has of late been much modified, so that now her Commerce is very extensive and largely on the increase. There are no internal monopolies except on salt, spirits, and playing cards. The Exports comprise tallow, hides, wheat, wool, leather, hemp, lint, iron, copper, linseed, timber, wax, train-oil, tar, skins, and furs. The value of the Exports from Russia to Great Britain in 1868 was 20,050,0001. The leaport include wine, cotton, silk, fine woollens, hardware, machinery, dyeing materials, coal, salt, tea, sugar, coffee, and other colonial produce. The value of the Imports from Great Britain in 1868 was 4,250,0001.
- c. Trade Regulations and Guilds.—Every Russian carrying on trade must be a Burgher, have his name registered, and be a member of a Guild, of which there are Three:—1. Persons belonging to the 1st Guild must possess 16,000 silver rubles, each 3/2, and may engage in any transaction whatever. 2. Members of the 2nd Guild must possess 8,000 rubles, and be confined to inland trade. 3. Members of the 3nd Guild must possess 2,400 rubles; this class comprises shopkeepers and petty dealers. Foreign Merchants, called Guests, if duly enrolled, enjoy nearly the privileges of the First Guild. The character of a Russian Merchant of the first class generally ranks high for integrity. (See Macciullock's Geographical Dictionary.)
- d. Roads, &c.—The great road from Petersburg to Moscow, extending above 500 miles, is wide, macadamised, and kept in excellent repair. Several other public roads are good. But the common roads are, in general, very poor. Sledge travelling is much practised in winter. Internal Communication is

greatly facilitated by numerous navigable rivers and Canals. Since 1853, above 3,100 miles of Railway have been opened. e. Chief Ports, &t.—On the W. and N. are Petersburg, Riga, and Archangel; on the S. are, Odessa and Kherson on the Black Sea; Taganrog on the Sea of Azof; and Astrakhan on the Caspian. Moscow is the principal Mart of the interior.

- 268a. Social Condition.—Government, fc.—The Government of Russia is an absolute hereditary Monarchy; the succession being now by regular descent of primogeniture, with preference of male over female heirs. The Sovereigns were formerly called Grand Dukes; afterwards, they assumed the title of Cear (a contraction of Casar); in the sequel that of Emperor. The Heir-apparent is called Casarowitz. The Emperor is the source of all power; he is the temporal head of the Church, as well as of the Civil Government; and his authority is absolute. All Rank is based on the tenure of Civil or Military Office. The hereditary Nobility are a privileged class, having great political power, and possessing the greater part of the land in the country.
- a. In the Administration of Government, the Emperor is assisted by Four Councils or Colleges:—1. The Imperial Council of the Emperor (consisting of a President, the Ministers, and some additional members) has the superintenders of all matters, both foreign and domestic. 2. The Second College or Directing Senate is the most important body of the State. Its functions are partly deliberative and partly executive. It is the High Court of Justice for the Empire, and has control over all the inferior tribunals. The members, amounting to 100, are nominated by the Emperor and receive salaries. This Senate superintends the courts of law, the Revenue, and Expenditure, and inquires into public abuses. Monthly Reports of its proceedings are published. 3. The Third College, called the Holy Synod, superintends the religious affairs of the Empire, and is composed of the principal dignitaries of the church. 4. The Fourth College consists of the Committee of Eleven Maisters, in whom the entire Executive Authority is vested. In the management of Parishes, the administration is chiefly entrusted to the people; who, according to Law, appoint communal officers to decide all parish affairs.
- c. The Revenue in 1869 was 66,038,000l.; the Expenditure about the same; the Public Debt amounted to 240,110,000l. d. Personal Freedom.—Until March 3, 1863, all the Russian peasants, artisans, and the majority of tradesmen, &c., were Serfs or Slaves, belonging either to the crown or to the nobility; but, on that day, an Imperial Ulaus (which had been promulgated on March 3, 1861) was put into execution, and all the Serfs, amounting to upwards of 44,500,000, were declared Free. Compensation, however, was given to their former masters. e. Military Service.—The Army (which amounts to about 800,000) is recruited from peasants and artisans, partly by conscription, which is very much disliked, partly by the adoption of sons of soldiers, and partly by voluntary enlistment. The Navy is strong, amounting to about 300 vessels of all kinds, and manned by about 60,000 men. The Police in the great towns is very efficient. Crime is not frequent in Russia, and Property is as well protected as in most other countries.
- **269a.** Religion.—The established Religion of Russia is that of the *Greek Church*. All religious denominations, however, enjoy toleration, except the Jews, who are excluded from Russia Proper. The total population professing the Russo-Greek-Faith amounts to about 56,000,000; the majority of the Poles are Roman Catholics, while those of the Baltic Provinces are generally Lutherans.
- b. The Clergy are either Secular, consisting of the married Parochial clergy (who are mostly supported by their own flocks), or Regular, consisting of the monks and the higher dignitaries. Many of these latter have been married, but on the death of their wives (as the Greek priests are not permitted to marry a second time), withdraw from parochial duties, enter some monstery, and are then eligible for becoming dignitaries. The Hierarchy is composed of Bishope, Arch.

bishops, and Metropolitans. There are 38 Dioceses. The Emperor is the Temporal Head or Defender of the Church, but does not interfere with its doctrines. He appoints all the dignitaries and a Synod for the settlement of any questions which may arise respecting Doctrines or Discipline. The Stipends of all the clergy are very small. Prior to 1453, the Russian Church was subordinate to the Bastern, whose head is the Patriarch of Constantinople, and all its Metropolitans had been nominated by the Patriarch. From the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1463 to the reign of Peter the Great, the Russian Clergy appointed their own metropolitan; but, since the reign of Peter, all these appointments are made by the Emperor. (For the Doctrines of the Greek Church, see Less. 16, No. 47.)

270a. Education.—In Russis, all Educational Establishments are under the control of the Government, and placed under a Minister of Instruction.

b. In 1851, the Educational establishments comprised six Universities; namely, Petersburg, Moscow, Kharkof, Kasan, Dorpat, and Kieff; 3 Lyces; 27 Military Schools, and 2,150 Secondary Schools. There are also many private schools kept by persons who are licensed, and who must use the books sanctioned by the authorities. Professorships of Agriculture have recently been established in the Universities. On the whole, though the higher classes have made of late great advancement in general knowledge, the Rural population are very ignorant. Among the tows population, however, a taste for instruction and reading is beginning to be widely diffused. Political Journals are subject to a strict Censorship; and all works and journals imported from abroad are subject to the inspection of the Censors.

272a. Races, Language, Character.—The Bussian Empire embraces a great variety of Races:—the Russians Proper, who form the great bulk of the nation, and amount to about 56,000,000, are, along with the Poles and Bulgarians, of the Sclavonic Family. Next in order are the Finns, the Tartars, and the Germans.—b. The Russian Language is a branch of the Sclavonic, divided into three principal Dislects:—1. The pure Russian, spoken in Moscow and all the central parts. 2. The Malo-Russian, spoken in the South-East parts. 3. The White Russian or dislect spoken in Lithuania and the adjacent parts. c. The population of European Russia is thinly scattered, there being only 38 persons per Square Mic.—d. Rask.—The people may be divided into 4 Classes:—1. Noblet, 2. Clergy; 3. Burghers, Merchants, and principal Farmers; and 4. the Peasants and Artisans. 1. The Nobles. Previously to the reign. of Peter the Great, the Russian Nobility consisted principally of the descendants of the ancient petty princes, having vast estates and peculiar privileges. These were generally adverse to any change. But, by degrees, their power has been abridged and their influence lessened by the introduction of a new Nobility founded on Merit. Many of the modern Russian Nobility are represented as highly intelligent and refined, and attentive to the improvement of their estates. 2. The Russian Clerry, though very poorly paid, are considered a respectable body, amounting to about 244,000 of all ranks. 3. The Burgher Class includes merchants and the principal farmers. The character of a Russian merchant, as previously stated, ranks high for commercial integrity. 4. The Pacasant Class comprises above 44,000,000 of individuals of both sexes.—e. Habits, character, de.—The Russians are generally of middle stature, stout and firmly built. The cottages of the presented in crime is not frequent. Every house is supplied with one or more pictures of their tutelary saints, to which every person on rising or retiring to rest, or on entering another house, pays his

LESSOW 107.—POLAND. **272a.** Physical.—Poland (*Poles*), was formerly much larger than at present. The present *Area* is 49,555 sq. miles; *Pop.* 5,543,000; *Cap.* Warsaw.

b. Surface.—Much of the Surface is flat, but large districts are abundantly diversified, presenting alternately fertile corn fields, savage steppes, rich pastures, sandy wastes, dense forests, and dreary swamps. The Rivers and streams are numerous.

- c. Climate.—The Climate is rigorous but healthy. The atmosphere is humid; cloudy or rainy days occupying nearly half the year. The cold in winter is as great as in Sweden, while the heat of summer is sometines above 110° Fahr. The mean Temp. of Winter at Warsaw is 24°, of Summer 65°.
- a. The Soil in some parts is very fertile; but, in the provinces of Plotak and Lublin, there is much barren land. The chief Miserals are bog-iron, copper, silver, lead, sinc, and coal.
 - e. POLITICAL. -- Polancis divided into 5 Provinces ;-
- 1. Warsaw , , . Warsaw, 342. 2. Lublin . . . Lublin, 31. 3. Radom . . Radom 10.
- f. Industrial Pursurs.—Agriculture has recently been much improved. The chief Products are rye, buck-wheat, white wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, tobacco. Sheep and oxen are extensively reared.

The Manufactures, which are chiefly conducted by Germans, comprise woollens, cottons, hosiery, leather, paper, glass, clocks, musical instruments, and carriages. The Commerce is almost entirely in the hands of the Jews.

- g. Social Condition.—Government.—In 1807, Napoleon 1st, by the peace of Tilisi, formed great part of ancient Poland under the name of the Grand Ducky of Warsaw. In 1815, the greater part of the Grand Ducky was formed into the Kingdom of Poland, and placed under the Emperor of Russia as king, with a Constitution, a separate army, and the use of the national language. In 1830, a Revolution took place which was suppressed in 1831. Poland was then declared an integral part of Russia, but with a separate administration. In 1862, when the Kingdom was for a time placed under 8 Military Governors. In 1863, these were removed, and the government of Poland was absolutely incorporated with that of Russia.
- A. The former Government of Poland was nominally that of an Elective Monarchy, but really a Republic, in which the king was merely the head of a party, the tool of the prevailing Faction. If clever, brave, and asgacious, he contrived to retain his position. Frequently, however, the reigns of these kings were terminated either in banishment or by assassination. Civil war and anarchy frequently prevailed in Poland, when the Factions would call in the sid of foreign powers. It was after one of these commotions, when the contending parties were prostrated, that the country, in 1772, easily fell a prey to the ever vigilant and aggressive Frederick the Great of Prusia, aided by the Empress of Russia and the Emperor of Austria. In 1793, a Second Partition took place; and, in 1795, a Third and Final Partition was effected; when Sassiaus, the last nominal Sovereign, resigned his crown at Grodno, and retired to Petersburg, where he died, Feb. 12, 1798.
- t. When Poland was Independent, there were only two classes of people:—1. The Mobles or Gentry (for titles conferred no political importance); and 2, the Peasants. 1. The whole of the land was the property of the nobility or gentry, and could not be held by any one else. Whatever merit a peasant or farmer might possess, he could never rise above his degraded position, nor purchase an acre of land. The owner of a few acres was regarded as a gentleman, and politically on a level with the richest nobleman. Every gentleman, however poor, considered it deprading to follow any branch of trade or commerce. Almost the only traders were Jews. But this order of things is now, under Russian influence, changed, and Landed Property can be held, indifferently, either by Nobles, Burghers, or Peasants. (See Macculloch's Geographical Dictionary.)
 2. The Peasants in Independent Poland were Staus, bought and sold as such, and created very similarly to what the negroes were till lately in North America. Thus, the boasted Freedom of Poland was in reality merely the license of the Gentry to trample under foot the mass of the people; to keep alive faction; to browbeat their Bovereign, and sell their votes. But this is now changed; the oppressive privileges of the nobles have, by Russia, been suppressed; nor can the people be ill-treated without subjecting the offender to the penalty of the law. By an Imperial Decree which took effect in 1863, the peasants of Poland as well as of Russia Proper were emancipated; and after an occupation of the land for 49 years, are to become Freeholders.
- j. In Religion, the great majority of the Poles are Roman Catholics, which has frequently been made a pretext for their opposition to Russian rule.

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- : 273a. FINLAND (Finns, or Finlanders).—The Grand Duchy of Finland is an extensive Province, East of the Gulf of Finland, formerly belonging to Sweden, but ceded to Russia in 1809. The Area comprises 146,070 sq. miles; Pop. 1,829,000; Cap. Helsing-FORS; Anc. Cap. Abo.
- b. The Surface is flat, but traversed in the centre by a range of low hills. The Coasts are deeply indented. The South part of the country contains many marshes; of which the chief are Ladoga. Saima, and Ulla.
- c. The Climate is healthy on the coasts. Heavy Rains fall in the Autumn. The Soil is moderately fertile. The Minerals comprise copper, iron, marble, and granite. The chief Crops are rye, barley, and potatoes. Horses and cattle are extensively reared. The Exports comprise timber, butter, skins, and dried fish. The Imports include grain, salt, metals, tobacco, and colonial produce.
- d. Finland is divided into 9 provinces. The chief towns are—Helsingfors, 22; Abo, 17. The Country possesses a Constitution separate from that of Russia, and a Parliament consisting of four Estates, namely, the Nobles, the Olergy, the Burghers, and the Peasants. The people are Lutherans, with the exception of about 36,000 who are members of the Greek Church. The troops of the Grand Duchy are raised entirely by enlistment, and the people enjoy a great amount of Personal Freedom.
- 274a. THE COSSACES OF THE DON occupy a vast plain; the Area of the territory is 63,778 sq. miles; the Pop. is about 1,116,870; of whom 896,870 are Cossacks; and 220,000 Russians settled amongst them; Cap. Tcherkask.
- b. The Surface is an elevated plateau; the Soil is fertile, but poorly cultivated. The chief Industrial Occupations are Agriculture. fishing, and cattle rearing.
- c. The Cossacks, though subject to Russia, have peculiar usages, and are governed by their own laws. The troops are almost wholly composed of cavalry, and form the irregular troops of Russia. Every male from 18 to 40 is liable to be called out on military duty. The chief, called Hetman, is nominated by the Emperor. In appearance, the Cossacks are of middle stature, strongly built, and capable of undergoing much fatigue. They make excellent horsement. Their arms consist of a long spear, a sabre, musket, and a brace of pistols.

LEGGOM 102,-275. THE PRINCIPAL PROVINCES AND TOWNS. Pop. of towns in thousands.

Ab'-o, the former cap. of Finland, a sea-

port, p.17.
Ak'er-man, a strong seaport in Bess-arabia, p. 29.
Arch-in'-gel, a large and barren prov. in the N. Ar. 322,800 sq. m., pop. Arch-au'-gel, the cap, of the above prov.,

p. 24. As-tra-kbau' (kon), a prov. in East Russia.

Ar. 84,948 sq. m., pop. 477,490. As-tra-khan', cap. of the above prov., and

a seaport, p. 44.

Bal-a-kia'-ya, a tn. in the Orimëa; nr. it
was fought a bat, in Oct, 1854, by the
British and French ag, the Russians,

Bor-o-d'-noo (des-no), a vil. nr. Moscow, cel. for a vict. gained by the French over the Russians in 1812, called the bat. of Moskwa. Caucisis, a large dist. in S. divided into

Cu-Cancaria in Europe (comprising the

prova. of Stavropol, Circassia, and Dag-hestan), and Trans-Caucasia in Asia. Circas'-sia, a country N. of the Caucasus range, the inhabs. of which have long

been cel. for their beauty. Cour'-land, a prov. S. of the Baltic.

10,860 ag. m; pop. 567,000.

Crimes, anc. Cherconésus Turrics, a pen-insula in the Sunth, 190 m. by 110 m.

Cop. SIMPEROPOL, p. 17. Nearly all the inhabs. are Tartars, p. 250,000. The Anglo-French army landed in Sept. 14, 1864, in Kalamita Bay. on the West Const

Coast.

Couristatt, in prov. of Petersburg, the chief Russian Raval Station, p. 48.

Dor'pat, in Livonia, with a cei. Prot. University, p. 14.

Ek-a-ter-in-o-slav' (-com-o-lay), cap. of a prov. in South Russia, manf. of woollens, p. 18.

Georg' gia, a dist. in Trans-Caucasia (anc. Iberia). Ar. 21,500 sq. in., pop. 873,000, mostly of the Greek Church; cop. TEFLIS, The Georgians are a very handsome race; many of their females were formerly sold to the Turks and Persians, but that practice has been prohibited by the Russians.

probibited by the Russians.
Georgi-cust (journey-cut), formerly cap, of
a dist, in Caucasia, p. 2.
Grod-no, cap, of a prov. where Stanislaus,
the last king of Poland, abdicated his
throne in 1798, p. 16.
Hel-sing-fore, cap. of Finland, seat of a
university, n. 22.

university, p. 22.

In-ker-man, a small tn. in the Crimea, cel. for a vict. by the Angio-French over

cel. for a vice, by the Anglo-French over the Russians on Nov. 5, 1854. Ja-ros-lav (yak-ro-slat), cap, of a prov. in Great Russia, manf. of silks, linens,

Great Russia, mann or sing, inneus, leather, p. 25.

Kaffa, or Theodósia, a seaport on the E, of the Orimea, p. 8.

Kailwiga, cap. of a prov. in Great Russia, manf. of arms, cloth, paper, p. 38.

Kamin-lets (kom-yen-ets), cap. of Podolla,

p. 20. Ka'san, cap. of Kasan in E. Russis, a university, manf. of woollens, cottons,

Kertch, a free port in the Orimea, taken by the Brit. and French, May 1855, p. 8. Khar'kov (\$60'), cap. of Kharkov in Little Russia, university, manf. of leather, p. 8d.

Kher'son, cap. of Kherson in S. Russia; here Howard the philanthropist died,

here Howard the philanthropist died, Jan. 30, 1700, p. 40.

Kish'e-nev, cap. of Bessarabia, manf. of woollens, &c., p. 94.

Kiev (&P-g'), cap. of Kiev in Little Russia, university, p. 60.

Livonia, a prov. E. of the Guif of Riga. Ar. 30,450 sq. m.; pop. 883,000. Lub'lin, in Poland, where many Jews reside, manf. of coarse woollens, p. 30.

Mittau. cap. of Courland, manf. of tin

Mittau, cap. of Courland, manf. of tin and iron goods, p. 28.

and fron goods, p. 22.
Mohlev (ke-lef), cap. of Mohilev in West
Russia, with much trade, p. 19.
Moscow, the anc. cap. of Russia, now the
second city, university, grt. emportum
of trade, was destroyed by the inhabs.

when occupied by the French in 1817; has been rebuilt on a more regular plan, p. 352. Rikolaieff (-16-47), a navai arsenal on Black

Rikoinieff (-bi-e), a naval arsenal on Black Sea, p. 6.
Rij-ni Nov-gi-rod (wizh-se), cap. of Rijni Rovgorod in Grest Russia, cel. for its annual fair, p. 42.
Nov go-rod, cap. of Rovgorod, formerly a great emporium, p. 17.
Odes sa, a large scapprt in Kherson, on the Black Sea, grt. trade in corn, p. 104.
Orenburg, cap. of Orenburg in East Russia, with grt. trade, p. 27.
Perm, a prov. in E. Russia. Av. 128,640 aq. m. The Olimate is severe, the Soil is poor, but the Mines of gold, platina, and copper are of great valte. and copper are of great value.

and copper are of great valle.

PETREBBURG. Fr., cap. of Russis, founded
by Peter the Great in 1708, on a flat
marshy soil, and subject to inundations
of the Neva; the seat of a university,
the courts of justice, &c., p. 546.
POLEY'S, cap. of a prov.; here Charles
12th of Sweden was def. by the Rus-

sians in 1709, p. 20.

suans in 1709, p. 20.
Pakov (aby), cap. of Pakov in Great
Russia, manf. of leather, &c., p. 16.
Rev'el, cap. of Esthonia, strongly fortified, with grt. trade, p. 29.
Riga, cap. of Livonia, a strong seaport,
with much trade, p. 27.
Sar'atov (tof), cap. of Saratov in E. Russia,
manf. of cottons. silks. watches p. 40.

manf. of cottons, silks, watches, p. 63. Sevas topol, a scaport 8.W. of the Crimea, cel. for its siege by the Anglo-French army in 1886, now much dilapidated,

p. 5. Simferopol, cap. of Taurida, p. 17. Taurida, a prov. in the S. Ar. 24,714 sq. m.; pop., 687,400, mostly Tartars. Tcher'-kask (cher-kask), cap. of the Don

Tcher-knak (cher-kash), cap. of the Don Cossacks, p. 20.
Tula (toola), cap. of Tula in Great Russia, with cannon foundries, arms, p. 57.
Vil'na, or Wil'na, cap. of Vilna, in West Russia, grt. trade in corn, p. 62.
Vicebak (we topsk), cap. of Vicebak in West. Russia, manf. of cloth, p. 28.
Warssw, csp. of Poland, manf. of wool-lens, linens, paper, &c., p. 243.

LESSON 109a.—HISTORY. 276a.—The ancient name of this country was Sarmatia. In the 5th century, it was overrun by hordes of Huns, Alans, and Bulgarians. These were succeeded by the Scient or Sciannians, who founded Kovgorod on the Yolkhof. In 863, the Scianonians having on some emergency received assistance from Ruric, the Scandinavian leader of a band of pirates then infesting the coasts of the Baltic, nominated him chief of their country. (Such of the Scandinavian pirates as were hired to become allies or auxiliaries to the settled inhabitants were called Varangians, a term said to be a corruption of the Sclavonic Warjasi, signifying hired allies.) Runic laid the foundation of the present hussian Empire. He was strict in the administration of justice, exacting from the BOYARS or territorial chiefs obedience to appointed regulations, and gave great encouragement to order. Ruric was succeeded in 879 by his son IGHOR, who removed the seat of government from Novgorod to Kies on the Dnieper. In 976, VLADIMIR THE GREAT ascended the throne, and soon after, on his marriage with Anne, sister of the Greek Emperor Basilius, embraced Christianity and introduced it among his countrymen. By his influence, Paganism was abolished, the Sclavonian letters introduced, the arts of Greece cultivated, churches founded, and several towns built. At his death in 1008, he cultivated, churches founded, and several towns outs. At his death in 1008, he most unwisely divided his dominions among his sons, which proved the cause of subsequent civil wars. JARISLAUS, a son of Vladimir, after defeating three of his brothers, succeeded in annexing their dominions to his own, and reigned from 1014 to 1045. Jarislaus extended the knowledge of Christianty; confered important privileges on the commercial citizens of Novgorod; enacted a body of equitable laws; and built several towns. At his death, however, he committed the same error as his father had done, by dividing his dominions among his five sons. This led to a repetition of the bloody actions which had stained the sons of Yladimir. The Poles took advantage of these disorders to make frequent inroads. In 1149, the city of Moscow was founded, and in 1157, Vladimir, on the Kilazma, which latter became the capital of Russia, and continued such till 1247, when the seat of government was transferred to Moscow. In 1223, the Mongol Tartars, under Tonshi, a soft of Genghis Khan, invaded and conquered the Eastern and Southern parts of Russia. In 1241, an invasion of the Danes was repulsed by Alexander Nevsky, whose son Daniel mounted the throne in 1247. He removed his residence in 1247 from Vladimir to Moscow, which he made his capital, and in which he built the palace of the Kremlin; in 1296, he assumed the title of Grand Duke. During several succeeding reigns, the Russians had to contend against the Tartars, Livonians, and Poles.

- 5. In 1462, after a long series of wars and intestine commotions, IVAN BASHOWITZ OF JOHN 32B ascended the throne, and reigned to 1505. Ivan married Sophia, niece of the last Greek emperor; repulsed the Poles and Lithnanians; reduced the Tartars of Kasan to tribute, and reunited under his authority the smaller Russian principalities. In the reign of his son, BASH THE 4TH, 1505 to 1533, the Tartars of the Crimes, incited by the Poles, committed fearful ravages in several districts. IVAN 4TH, surnamed the Terrible, succeeded (1533 to 1584), and was crowned in 1545 by the title of CZAR. He instituted the corps of Streitizes (archers), the first regular army of Russia, reformed the code of laws, socured the allegiance of the Don Cossacks in 1649, opened trade with Ragland through Archangel in 1553, acquired Siberia in 1581, and introduced the art of printing and some manufactures. His son FRODOR or THEODORS (1584-98) was the last of the male line of Ruric which had ruled under 56 Sovereigns for 758 years. After Feedor, several usurpers, assisted by the Poles and Swedes, reigned from 1586 to 1613.
- c. În 1618, all orders in the state combined in raising to the throne MICHAEL.
 ROMANOFF, a descendant by the female line from the House of Ruric (1613–
 45). Michael consolidated his own power and that of his country. Though compelled by the Boyars to re-establish the slavery of the pessantry, he partially succeeded in redressing the abuses occasioned by the preceding anarchy, and concluded treaties of commerce with Ragiand in 1623, and with France in 1629. His son ALEXIS, who succeeded (1645–76), obtained, after a long contest with Poland, Tchernigow, Kiew, and the Ukraine. He introduced many internal improvements and encouraged Scotch and German artisans to settle in Russia. His eldest son FEODOR succeeded (1676–82), and at the death of Feodor, two othersons, Ivan and Peter Bir, but by different wives, succeeded as joint sovereigns, under the guardianship of SOPHIA, the sister of Ivan. an ambitious princess—who aspired to exercise the sole authority. The attempts of Sophia to exclude Peter from all share in the government caused a Revolution in 1639 in favour of Peter, who henceforth ruled as sole sovereigns.

PETER 18T, THE GREAT, sole sovereign from 1689 to 1725, was in every sense an extraordinary man for firmness of will, resolute endurance, and great self-secrifice. He diligently endeavoured to supply the defects of his education, acquired almost entirely by self-tuition a knowledge of several languages, vigorously studied the mechanical arts, particularly that of ship-building, formed a body of troops on the European model, which he exercised against the Turks and Tartars on the South and East. Having provided for the safety of his empire by placing the troops under the command of some able foreign officers in his service, particularly of General Gordon, Peter quitted his dominions in 1697 as a private person, and travelled for nearly two years through Germany, Holland, and England; worked as a common shipwright in the dockyard of Zaandam in Holland, and afterwards at Deptford in England. During his absence, the Streitzes, or Imperial body guard, mutinied, but were compelled to submit by the courageous energy of General Gordon, and on Peter's return, the corps was abolished and replaced by regular troops. Peter now sealously proceeded in his projected changes of manners and dress, and in the introduction of useful arts among his semi-barbarous subjects. When he ascended the throne, he had only one port, Archangel; but in 1699 he compelled the Turks to cede another, Azof in the South. He next joined the league of Denmark and Poland against Sweden, when his raw levies were defeated by Charles 12th at Narva in 1700. While Charles 12th was engaged in Poland, Peter seized on Ingria and Carelia, and laid the foundation in 1703 of his new capital, PETERSBURG. In the meantime, he established schools, printing presses, manufactories, and hospitals method.

curtailed the overgrown power of the clergy by abolishing the Patriarchate, and declaring himself the temporal head of the Church. In his war with Charles 12th he wrested from the Swedes Wibourg, Revel, Riga, Esthonia, and Lieonia, but was less fortunate in his war with the Turks, being compelled in 1711 to restore Azof. In 1716-7, Peter again travelled through Holland, Denmark, and France. The Swedish war was terminated by the peace of Nystadt in 1721, when Peter's acquisitions were confirmed to him. Soon afterwards, he exchanged the title of CSAT for that of EMPEROR and AUTOCRAT. He died Jan. 1726, and was succeeded by his widow CATHERINE, originally a Livonian peasant girl, who reigned only two years, 1725-7.

- LESSON 1096.—Peter 2nd, son of Alexis Petrovitz and grandson of Peter the Great, succeeded and reigned from 1727 to 1730. At his death, Anne, duchess of Courland and daughter of Ivan, the elder brother of Pether, succeeded and reigned from 1730 to 1740. In 1740, a Revolution took place which raised to the throne in 1741, Elizabeth, the daughter of Peter the Great and the Empress Catherine. She reigned from 1741 to 1762. At Elizabeth's death, the crown devolved on her nephew, Peter 2nd, of the house of Holstein-Gottopp, from whom the present Imperial Family are descended. After a short reign of six months, this prince was dethroned, and died in prison in the course of a week, it is supposed by violence. His wife, Catherine 23D, a woman of extraordinary talent, but of unscrupulous ambition, was then raised to the throne, and reigned from 1762 to 1796. She added largely to Russia by her acquisitions of Courland, Lithuania, Volhynia, Polotsk, Mohilew, &c., from Polsad; of Crim-Tarkery, Chocsim, Bender, Ismail, &c., from Tarkey.
- c. PAUL, the son of Catherine 2nd, succeeded his mother, and reigned from 1796 to 1801. In 1798, he joined the second great coalition against France. The troops which he sent on this occasion in 1799 in aid of Austria were engaged in Italy and Switzerland under Generals Suwarrow and Korsakow. Paul's fickleness, however, led him to abandon his allies, make peace with Buonaparte, the First Consul, and, in 1800, place himself at the head of the armed Consention of the North to resist the British Maritime Supremacy. A war with England was thus impending when Paul was assessinated in 1801, by a band of conspirators.
- d. His son and successor, ALEXANDER 1st (1801-25), immediately effected a pacification with England, and contrived to preserve a peaceful relation towards France till 1805, when he was induced to join Austria against Napoleon, and was present at the defeat at Austerlitz. In 1806, he commenced a war against Turkey, and occupied Wallachia and Moldavia. After the French victories of Rylan and Friedland in 1807, he had a conference with Napoleon, which led to the peace of Tilsi and Alexander's adoption of the French Continental System, intended to ruin the foreign trade of England. War was accordingly decired against England and Sweden in 1808, by which Sweden was compelled to cede to Russia, in 1809, Finland, East Bothnia, and Aland. The war with Turkey was continued from 1810 to 1812, when the Continental System, having entailed serious injury on Russian commerce and prosperity, Alexander refused to enforce it. This led to a War with France in 1812, and to a treaty of peace with Turkey, which was signed at Buckharest; at the same time, alliances were concluded with England and Sweden. The events connected with the French invasion of Russia in 1812 have been stated under France (No. 1833, b, Less. 90). At the General Peace, Alexander visited England. By the Congress of Vienna in 1815, Warsaw and a large territory under the name of the Kingdom of Poland, were annexed to Russia. In 1813, the Caucasian Provinces and Georgia were ceded by Persia to Russia. Alexander died at Taganrog, Dec. 1826, aged 48.
- e. Nicholas, brother of Alexander, and third son of Paul, succeeded (1825-55), his brother Constantine, the second son, having previously resigned in his favour. Richolas compelled Persia in 1828 to cede Erican and the country as far as the Araxes. In the Greek Revolutionary War of Independence of 1827, Russia, France, and England proposed terms to Turkey for the settlement of the question, which, being rejected by Turkey, led to the destruction of the Turkish fieet at Navarino, Oct. 1827. By the treaty of Adrianople in 1829, Russia obtained from Turkey the protectorate of Moldavia and Wallachia. In 1830, a revoit of the Poles took place, which was suppressed in 1831, when Poland was incorporated with Russia. In 1833, Turkey was compelled to seek the aid of Russia to check the encroachments of the rebel Pasha of Egypt, which was granted on vey stringent terms. In 1838, Persian army commanded by Russian officers, attacked Herat, but was repulsed; and, in 1849, a Russian

expedition was undertaken against Khiva, which also failed; both these expeditions were at the time thought to be menacing to our Indian Empire. In the great German Revolutionary Struggle of 1848, Austria was obliged to seek the aid of Russia to suppress the Hungarian revolt; the aid was granted, and after a hard struggle, the Hungarians were compelled to submit in 1849.—In 1853, a dispute having arisen between the Greek and Latin Monks respecting the permanent possession of the Holy Places in Jerusalem, the Porte referred the matter to a mixed commission, when the decision was given in favour of the Greeks. Upon this, Russia advanced such claims of protection over the Greeks as interfered with the independence of Turkey. As Russia would not depart from her demands, Turkey called in the aid of England and France, which led to the CRIMERAN WAR, 1854-6, the events of which have been narrated under France (No. 1886), Less. 92). The Emperor Nicholas died, March 2, 1855. f. ALEXANDER 2ND, on succeeding his father Nicholas, March 2, 1855. f. ALEXANDER 2ND, on succeeding his father Nicholas, March 2, 1855. f. ALEXANDER 2ND, on succeeding his father Nicholas, March 2, 1855. f. ALEXANDER 2ND, on succeeding his father Nicholas, March 2, 1855. f. ALEXANDER 2ND, on succeeding his father Nicholas, March 2, 1855. f. ALEXANDER 2ND, on succeeding his father Nicholas, March 2, 1855. f. ALEXANDER 2ND, on succeeding his father Nicholas, decree was published for their total Emancipation throughout the empire in two years. This noble measure was fully carried out on March 3, 1863. In Jan. 1863, an insurrection in Poland toos; this was suppressed in April 1864, when the occupiers of the lands were, by an Imperial Ridick, declared to be, after the expiration of 47 years, the proprietors; this was suppressed in April 1864, when the occupiers of the lands were, by an Imperial Ridick, declared to be, after the expiration of 47 years, the proprietors; this was ended in Nov. 1866, on the Emir's Illumession. In Nov. 1866, princ Alexander,

LESSON 110.-AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE.

- 277a. Physical.—The Austro-Hungarian Empire is an extensive country, including several distinct races of people, differing in language, habits, and manners. Though crippled by its war with Prussia in 1866, it is still a powerful nation. The Area is 240,276 sq. miles; Pop. in 1867 was 34,670,000; Cap. Vienna. Austria has no foreign possessions.
 - b. Seas, Gulfs.-The Adriatic Sea, Gulf of Trieste.
 - c. Islands.—The Dalmatian Islands in the Adriatic Sea.
- 278a. Surface.—The German portion of the Austrian dominions is with a few exceptions mountainous, especially Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, and the Tyrol. Hungary is in general level, except towards the Carpathian Mts.; and Galicia, with the same exception, is a great plain abounding with wood. There are also extensive plains in Lower Austria.
- b. Mountains.—The Alps in the South West; the Riesen-Gebirge, Erz-Gebirge on the North; the Bohmer-Wald on the West of Bohemia; the Moravian Mts. between Moravia and Bohemia; and the Carpathian Mts. between Hungary and Galicia.
- c. Rivers.—Danube (with its tributaries, the Inn, Drave, Save, &c.); the Elbe, Vistula, Dniester (nees-ter), and Theiss (tics).
 - d. Lakes.—Platten-See (sa), 48 m. by 4 m., in the S. of Hungary.
- 279a. Climate. Except in the mountainous regions, the Climate of Bohemia, Moravia, and the Arch-duchy of Austria is mild and salubrious. The climate of Hungary resembles that of the

Southern countries of Europe, but the Summer is hotter and the Winter more severe.

b. There may be said to be three Zones of Vegetation:—1. The Zone of olives and rice, extending from 43° N. Lat. to 46° ; 2. That of the vine and maize, from 46° to 49° N. Lat.; 3. The third is that of grain, hops, and hemp, from 43° to 51° N. Lat.

The mean Temp. of Wint, at Vienna is 33° Fah.; Buda 25°; Trieste 39°; of Sum. at Vienna is 65°; Buda 66°; Trieste 71°.

- c. The average annual Rainfall at Vienna is 28 inches. The Alpine region is the most rainy in Europe; the smallest amount of rain falls in Hungary and Dalmatia, which are occasionally visited with droughts.
- **280***a. Soil.*—The Soil of this extensive country is very various. The plains of Hungary are in general very fertile; next to these are Galicia, Bohemia, Moravia, Austria Proper, and Styris. Nearly a third part of the productive soil is covered with forests.
- b. Minerals —The Mineral riches of the Austrian dominions, if properly developed, would be equal, if not superior, to those of any country in Europe. There are mines of gold, silver, iron, copper, lead, alum, saltpetre, coal, salt, with quarries of marble, &c. c. Of Wild Animals, may be mentioned the bear, wolf, fox, lynx, and chamois; and, in the Alps, the jackal.
- **281**a. Political Divisions.—The Austrian Empire is now generally considered under Two Great Sections (each having a separate internal administration, though both are united under the same sovereign); namely, 1. The Cis-Leithan Provinces, and 2. The Trans-Leithan Provinces.
- 1. The Cis-Leithan provinces include all the German Provinces along with Galicia, Bukowina, and Dalmatia. 2. The Trans-Leithan provinces include 1. Hungary, with Servia and the Banat of Temes; 2. Transylvania; 3. Croatia and Sclavonia; and 4. The Military Frontier. (The Leitha is a river near Vienna which is considered as the Boundary between Austria Proper and Hungary.) In the following Table the old German Provinces are marked with a star (*). The Census given is that of 1867. Lombardy, in Italy, formerly belonging to Austria, was ceded to the Kingdom of Italy in 1869; and Venetia in 1866.

b. Cis-Leithan or German Prove.	Area in Sq. m.	Pop.	Capitals.							
1. *Lower Austria	7,655	1.752.246	Vienna, 578.							
2. *Upper Austria	4.683	721,597	Linz, 35.							
8. *Salsburg	2,766	147,018	Salaburg, 17.							
4. *Styria	8,670	1.096,647	Gratz, 63.							
5. *Carinthia	4,006	848,492	Klagenfurt, 14.							
6. *Carniōla	8,857	476,698	Layback, 17.							
7. *Goritz, Gradisca, Istria, and Trieste	3,064	569,726	Trieste, 95; Gorits, 10.							
8. *Tyrol and Vorariberg .	11.311	881.296	Innsbruck, 15; Trent, 13,							
9. *Bohemia	20,063	5,149,486	Prague, 142,							
10. *Moravia	8,584	1,968,646	Brunn, 59: Olmuts, 12.							
11. Silesia	1,987	496,730								
12. (Galicia	80,241	5,145,129								
13. Bukowina	4,087	492,420								
14. (Dalmatia	4,940	451,856	Zara, 7.							
c. The Trans-Leithan Provinces:— 15. Hungary Proper, with Servia and the Banat of 82,836 10,814,306 Buds-Pesth, 132; Presburg, 43;										
_ Temes)	i i		Temeswar, 20.							
16. Transylvania	21,208									
17. Croatia and Sclavonia .	7,444	962,081	Agram, 16 ; Hasek, 18.							
18. Military Frontier	12,955	1,142,531								
Total	240.276	34,706,460								

- LESSON 111.—INDUSTRIAL OCCUPATIONS. 282a.—Agriculture, &c.—In various parts of Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, Agriculture receives much attention; but, in other districts, the land is negligently and unskilfully cultivated. With more careful cultivation Austria might maintain double the amount of its present population.
- b. The Products comprise all the cereals, with the vine, which is grown in abundance. Cattle are extensively reared.
- 283a. Manufactures.—Manufacturing Industry has made great progress since 1815. The manufactures of woollen cloths and other articles are extensively carried on in Moravia and Bohemia. The most important articles made are woollens, linens, cottons, silks, steel, wood and glass wares.
- b. The chief Exports from Austria to Great Britain direct (that is, not through other countries) are corn, flour, hemp, tallow, olive oil, wool, &c.; the value of which in 1868 was 2,029,3101. The principal Imports from Great Britain direct comprise colonial products, cotton, cotton-yarn, woollen goods, hides, and metals; the value of these in 1868 was 1,084,5751. c. The means of Communication are extensive. Steam-packets are established on the Danube. The Railways in operation in 1869 extended to about 4,517 miles. The chief Naval Port is Pola in Istria; the chief Commercial Ports are—Trieste, Rovigno, and Filme.
- 284a. Social Condition.—Government.—Since 1849, Austria has become a Constitutional Country; and since 1867, a kind of Dual State, consisting—1. Of a German Monarchy under an Emperor; and 2. Of a Magyar or Hungarian Kingdom under a King who is also Emperor of Austria. Each of these states possesses its own laws, its own parliament, and its own ministers.
- 5. 1. The First Constitution of the Austrian Monarchy granted in 1849 was repealed in 1851, and a more absolute form substituted. After various modifications, however, a decree or Patent of the present constitution was promulated in 1861, and finally established in 1867. By this a Double Legislature is formed for the Austrian Empire. 1. The First consisting of the Fourteen Provincial Diets which represent the Cis-Leithan State; and the Second of the Hungarian or Trans-Leithan Constitution. Each of the Fourteen Provincial Cis-Leithan Diets consists of only one assembly which makes laws concerning its own local taxes and administration; while a Central or General Diet, called the Reichsrath, or Council of the whole of the Western part of the Empire, consists of two chambers, an Upper and a Lower one. The Upper chamber contains about 203 members, is composed of the Imperial Princes, ecclesiastical Dignitaries and principal nobility of the empire. The Lower chamber contains about 203 members appointed by the 14 Provincial Diets of the Empire. The Reichsrath passes all bills relating to military duty, trade, agriculture, income, debt, expenditure, &c., of the State. Every bill, however, to become valid, must receive the consent of both chambers and also of the Emperor. The Executive of the Cis-Leithan Monarchy consists, under the Emperor of six responsible Ministers; namely, 1. Of Foreign Affairs; 2, of Finance; 3, of the Interior; 4, of War; 5, of Commerce and Agriculture; and 6, of Justice.
- 2. The Constitution of the Kingdom of Hungary or Trans-Leithan Dominion (including Hungary Proper, Croatia, Sclavonia, and Transylvania) is of ancient, date, and forms a kind of Aristocratic Monarchy in which the King possesses only a limited power. By this Constitution, the power of Legislation and Taxation is vested in two representative bodies:—let, The Diet or Parliament; 2nd, the County Meetings. 1. The Diet consists of an Upper and a Lower Chamber. The Upper or Chamber of Magnates is composed of the Prelates, chief Barons, high officers of the crown, and certain Barons summoned by the King. The Lower Chamber is composed of the representatives of towns and

- rural districts. 2. In the County Meetings, the parliamentary deputies and county officers are chosen, and all business connected with local legislation and taxation is transacted. The Hungarian Executive, exercised in the name of the King, consists of 8 responsible Ministers; namely, 1, of War; 2, of Foreign Affairs; 3, of Finance; 4, of the Interior; 5, of Education; 6, of Justice; 7, of Public Works; 8, of Agriculture.
- c. The Revenue of Cis-Leithan Austria in 1869 was 29,628,000l.; of Trans-Leithan was 12,924,000l. The Public Debt of the two in 1869 was 306,980,000l. (See Martin's Stateman's Fear Book.)
- d. Personal Freedom, &c.—Though the peasants are personally free, they are subject to many restrictions. In Austria, as the Army is formed by Conscription, all males at the age of 20 are liable to Military Service. The term of Service is 10 years, of which 3 must be in active service, and the remaining 7 in the army of reserve. In times of peace, substitutes are allowed, but at a cost of 123i. premium for each man, which of course cannot be raised by poor men. The Army in peace amounts to 278,000 men; in war to 838,000. The Navy in peace is manned by about 4,500 men; in war by 10,000 men. e. The Liberty of the Press is restricted by a Censorship which is entrusted to the police department, without whose permission no work, however small, can be legally printed.
- 285a. Religion.—The predominant Religion of Austria is the Roman Catholic; of Hungary, the Protestant. But, since 1867, complete Liberty of Conscience has been granted to all classes throughout the Empire.
- b. Prior to 1868, the Protestants in the greater part of the Empire were merely tolerated under annoying restrictions, not being allowed to build churches with steeples, to use bells, or keep Parish Registers independently of the Roman Catholic clergy, or even to open any place of worship unless a congregation of at least 100 families had in the first place been secured. In Hungary and Transylvania, however, the greater part of the Magyar inhabitants being Protestants have long enjoyed equal rights with the Catholics; though these rights have frequently been attempted to be infringed, which formed one cause of the Hungarian Revolt in 1848. Since 1867, however, Liberty of Conscience has been secured to all classes by the Constitution. c. The Hierarchy of the Roman Catholic church is very rich. Out of Hungary and Transylvania, the Protestant clergy are chosen and paid by their own flocks.
- 286a. Education.—The whole Educational Machinery in Austria is under the control of an Educational Board appointed by Government. This Board appoints all the professors at Universities and Colleges, and all teachers at schools, publishes the books used in instruction, and controls the minutest details relating to schools. It prescribes the course and distribution of the hours of study, from which no deviation is permitted.
- b. Elementary Instruction is now widely diffused. Every child between 6 and 12 years of age must be educated either at home or at school; and, in manufacturing districts, none can be sent to a factory under 9 years of age. All children in factories attend school on Friday evenings and Sundayamornings till they are 15 years of age. In Roman Catholic districts, the priest is the inspector; in Protestant districts, the Protestant Clergyman. The Universities are Vienna, Pesth in Hungary, Lemberg in Galicia, Prague in Bohemia, Innsbruck in Tyrol, Gratz in Styria, and Olmutz in Moravia.
- LESSON 112.—287a. Races, Languages, Ranks, &c.—The Austrian Empire is occupied by three principal Races, dissimilar in language and habits, and frequently in national associations.
- 1. The Germans, occupying Austria Proper and the adjacent provinces, speak the German Language. But, as the Austrian dialect is considered unpleasant, French is much used, not only at Court and by Diplomatists, but in genteel society.

 2. The Scianonians (Czechs, Slovachs, &c.) occupying Scianonia,

Servia, Illyria, North Hungary, Bohemia, and parts of Moravia, speak the Polish, Bohemian, or some other Sclavonian dialect. 8. The Magyars, or ruling race of Hungary, inhabiting the Hungarian Plains, speak either the Magyar or the Latin Language. The Magyars, since 1866, have been restored to their the Latin Language. The Magyars, since 1866, have been restored to their former ascendancy. 4. Besides the above, there are the Wallachs, Dacians or Roumanians (a mixture of ancient Thracians, Romans, and Sciavonians), who speak a corrupted dialect of Latin. The Jews, Tartars, Gypsies, &c., who are scattered in the various provinces, speak the dislects of their respective localities. b The country is pretty populous, having 148 persons to each sq. mile. c. Different Ranks.—The Nobility both in the German and Hungarian provinces are both numerous and rich, and their estates generally entailed.

The Peasants are personally free: those of Hungary and Germany are the most advantageously circumstanced in point of domestic comfort. d. In General Character, the Austrians Proper partake of the same characteristics as other Germans. They are considered honest, industrious, and orderly. The number of criminal offences is said to be small. The Magyars are of Mongol descent, who for 900 years have been the ruling people of Hungary, without intermixing with the subjugated people or peasants. They are high spirited, averse to sedentary work, accustomed to much out-door exercise, and warmly attached to their national language, habits, and rights. Their costume is the most splendid in Europe.

288. PRINCIPAL TOWNS AND LOCALITIES. The pop. of towns in thousands.

A'-gram, cap. of Croatia, residence of the Ban or Governor of the Banat, p. 16. Aus'-ter-lite, in Moravia, where Napoleon lat def. the emperors of Austria and Russia, Dec. 2, 1806, p. 2. Bidden, in Austria, cel. for its baths, p. 5. Ban'-at, a district S. of Hungary, bet. the Danube, Theiss, and Maros rivers. Ar. 7,600 sq. m.; p. 1,530,000. Brunn, cap. of Moravia, manf. of woollens, cottons, &c., p. 59. Bi'ds, or O'-fen, cap. of Hungary, opp, to

Posth, resid, of the Viceroy, has been several times taken by the Turks, p. 56; with Peeth, 182.

Caris'-bad (but), in Bohemia, a fashionable

Oaris-bad (623), in Bonomia, a fashionable watering-place, p. 3.
Crā-cow, the anc. cap. of Poland, lately of a repub, now belonging to Austria, seat of a university, p. 41.
Cor-no-wits (cher-no-witch), cap. of Bukowina, manf. of clocks, hardware, &c.,

De-brec-zin (da-bret'-sin), in Hungary, manf, of coarse woollens, seat of a uni

versity, p. 36.
Er-lau, in Hungary, with great trade, p. 18.
Ess'-ck, cap. of Sclavonia, manf. of silks,

stuffs, p. 18. Fi-u-me (fÿ-55-md), in Croatia, a free port,

manf. of linens, p. 15. Gor-itz, in Illyria, manf. of silks, leather,

&c., p. 13.
Gran, in Hungary, a steam packet station
on the Danube, trade in wine, p. 12.

on the Danube, trade in wine, p. 12.

Grats. cap, of Styria, seat of a university,
manf. of cottons, &c., p. 63.

Gross-war-dein (diso), in Hungary, a
strong city, p. 22.

Her-man-stadt, in Transylvania, manf.
of lineus, woollens, p. 13.

Gria, in Carniola, with valuable mines of

Idria, in Carniois, when values in inter-or-quicksilver, p. 5.

Ill'pr'-la, prior to 1840, included Carinthia, Carniola, &c., and comprised 10,850 sq. m., but now includes only Gortzs, Gradica, Istria, and Trieste.

Inna-bruck (brook), cap. of the Tyrol, seat of a university, surrounded by magni-ficent scenery, p. 15.

Kari-stadt, in Croatia, a royal free town

and fortress, p. 6. Kets'-kemet, in Hungary, with a large cattle fair, p. 29.

cattle fair, p. 39.

Ris'gen-furt, cap, of Carinthia, manf. of silks, wooliens, &c., p. 14.

Risu-sen-burg, cap, of Transpivania, seat of a provin, diet, p. 21.

Kom'-ora, in Hungary, a strong town, the pop, mostly Prot., p. 21.

Konig-gratz, on the Elbe, 63 m. from Prague, where the Prussians def. the Austrians in 1868, p. 8.

Krem'-nitz, in Hungary, cel. for its gold and silver mines. h.

arem-nus, in Hungary, cel. for its gold and silver mines, p. 6. Kron-stadt, in Transylvania, with paper and book establishments, p. 26. Lay-back (Sp. cap. of Carniola, manf. of porcelain, p. 31.

porcelain, D. 31. Lemberg, cap. of Galicia, seat of a uni-versity, manf. of woollens, p. 75. Lins (tinze), cap. of Upper Austria, manf-of cuttons, silks, &c., p. 37. Lissa, a small isle off Daimatia, S.-W. of Spaiatro, where the Austrian fleet def.

the Italian in 1866, Military Frontier, a long strip on the Turkish frontier, occup, mostly by Sciavonians, who are soldiers and farmers,

Mis-kols (mish-kolts), in Hungary, cel. for steel manf., trade in wine, p. 26. Molacs, a tn. nr. the confluence of the Drave, where the Turks def. the Hungarians in 1526, but were themselves def. by the Austrians in 1687, p. 9.

Ol'-mutz, in Moravia, seat of a university ; here the late emperor abdicated, Dec. 2,

1848, p. 19.
Pesth (pest), in Hungary, close to Buda;
the two are frequently combined as Pesth-Buda, seat of a university, pop. with Buda, 182.

with Buds, 162.

Prägue, cap. of Bohemia, seat of a university first established in Germany, long the residence of the reformers, John Huss and Jerome of Prague, manf. of cuttons, linens, woollens, &c., p. 142.

es-burg, once the cap. of Hungary; in its cathedral the kings of Hungary are crowned, and here Maria Theresa appealed in 1741 to the Hungarian Diet:

pealed in 1741 to the Hungarian Diet; manf. of silks, woollens, &c., p. 48, Ra-ab (rdh-db), in Hungary, with grat-trade; on its plain, the Hungarians were def. by the French in 1809, p. 18. Sa-do-wa, a vil. 8. m. from Koniggratz, where the Prussians def. the Austrians

July 3, 1866.

Sals-burg, cap. of Sals-burg, bpl. of Haydn and Mozart, manf. of leather, p. 17. Schem-nitz (shem-nitz), in Hungary, cel. for gold, silver, and lead mines, p. 20. Sem'-lin, in Sclavonia, with much trade,

Sem'-lin, in Susarvan, p. 13.

Spal-i-tro, in Dalmatia, a scaport, p. 10.

Stey-er (stre), in Upper Austria, manf. of arms and steel goods, p. 10.

Stuhl-weiss-en-burg (stool-wi-cen-boorp), in Hungary, manf. of fannels, p. 14.

Szeg-ed-in (seg-ed-em), in Hungary, manf. of woollens, leather, &c., p. 62.

Tem-es-war (tem-ssh-edh), cap. of the Banat, with much trade, p. 22. There'-sien-stadt (ta-rd-si-en-stat), in Hungary, manf. of linen, leather, &c.,

p. 53.
Theiss (tice), a river in Hungary.
Tokky, in Hungary, cel. for its wines, p. 5.
Trent, in the Tyrol, cel. for a council of
Rom. Cath. bishops held from 1645 to 1563, to suppress the Reformation, p. 13, rieste (tre-est), in Illyria, the chief Austrian port and emporium of trade.

p. 104.

p. 102.
Troppau, cap. of Silesis, manf. of wool-leus, linens, &c., p. 13.
VIENNA, cap. of the Austrian Emp., seat of a university, p. 578.
Wielicza (we-litch-ka), in Galicia, nr.

which is an extensive salt mine, containing within it a rivulet and a fresh-water lake, &c., p. 4. Za'ra, cap. of Dalmatia, a strong scaport.

LESSON 113.—289a. HISTORY.—The Austrian Empire comprises the ancient countries of Noricum, Pannönia, Dacia, the Boii, and the Quadi.
On the death of Conrad the 4th, Emperor of Germany in 1254, several com-

On the death of Courte ine 100, partial repetitors for the Imperial Crown appeared, and great anarchy prevailed for several years. During this unsettled state of affairs, the Great Feudatories and Electors of the Empire took advantage to strengthen their own power in their respective territories. At last, in 1273, BUDOLF 187, COUNT OF HAPESURG, in Aargau, who, by his wisdom, skill, and bravery, had extended his sway over the greater part of Switzerland, was elected to fill the vacant throne. His elevation was owing to the wish of the electors to nominate a man of ability who would put down the prevailing anarchy, but who, at the same time, from the smallness of his own domains would have no power to disturb the feudatories in theirs. A short time previously to the elevation of Rudolf, the family of the ancient dukes of Austria and Styria, of the house of Bamberg, having become extinct, their states were taken possession of by Ottocar, king of Bohemia, Ottocar having refused to acknowledge allegiance to Rudolf as Emperor, war, with the sanction of the Diet, was declared against him; and, in the decisive battle of *Marchfield* in 1278, his forces were totally routed, and he himself killed. By the death of Ottocar, and the forfeiture of his estates, Rudolf easily procured from the Diet the investiture of the Duchy of Austria (including the districts of Styria and Carniola), in favour of his eldest son ALBERT, in the possession of whose descendants it has ever since continued.

- b. In 1307, three of the Swiss Cantons, headed by William Tell, revolted against the tyranny of Albert, and ultimately secured their independence. Notwithstanding this secession, and the subsequent elevation of several princes of other families to the Imperial throne, the power of the house of Austria steadily increased, and, in no very long time, it a dominions embraced some of the most important countries of Europe. It has been chiefly indebted for its extraordinary aggrandisement not to conquest but to fortunate alliances.
- c. In 1477, MAXIMILIAN, son of the Emperor Frederick 3rd, married the daughter and heiress of Charles the Bold, the last duke of Burgundy, and, by daughter and heiress of Charles the Bold, the last duke of Burgundy, and, by this means, acquired the Netherlands, Franche Comté, and Artois. At the close of the century, Philip 1st, son of the above-named Maximilian, married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. By this marriage, Austria acquired Spain, America, and Italy. CHARLES 5TH, son of Philip 1st and grandson of Maximilian, became, in 1519, Emperor of Germany and King of Spain. In 1522, the third year of his reign, Charles, though retaining his dignity of Emperor, resigned his German provinces to his brother, FERDINAND 1-T, whe, in consequence of his marriage with Anne, sister of Louis 7nd, King of Hungary and Bohenia, succeeded to the crowns of those kingdoms. In 1558, 'Charles &th retired from his worldly career, leaving his German comments his 'Charles 5th retired from his worldly career, leaving his German crown to his brother Ferdinand, and his other posses ions to his son Philip 2nd. FERDINAND, already king of Hungary and Bohemia, was elected Emperor in 1556, and thus became the head of the Austrian-Hapsbury line. Ferdinand's successors were— Maximitian 2nd, his son, 1864; Rodolf 2nd, son of Maximilian, 1876; Mathias, brother of Bodolf, 1612; Ferdinand 2nd, cousin of Rodolf 2nd, 1619; Ferdinand

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3rd, son of Ferdinand 2nd, 1637; Leopold 1st, son of Ferdinand 3rd, 1658; Joseph 1st, son of Leopold 1st, 1705; Charles 6th, brother of Joseph, 1711.

- d. In 1648, by the TREATY OF WESTPHALIA, the Independence of the different States of Germany, and the free exercise of the Protestant Religion were secured after a war of 30 year's continuance. In 1699, the Turks, who had frequently occupied portions of Hungary, were finally expelled from that country, when the Austrians obtained an ascendancy over the Ottomans which they have ever since preserved.
- e. In 1740, the male line of the house of Hapsburg terminated by the death of the emperor Charles 6th; but his daughter MARM THERESA, married to Francis of Lorraise, grand duke of Tuscany, succeeded to his dominions, and her husband eventually to the Imperial crown. From her very accession, she was involved in a series of sangninary struggles by the ambition of Prussia and Bavaria. Frederick, usually called the Great, King of Prussia, most ungenerously selsed upon the greater part of Silesia; and, though Austria for seven years endeavoured to recover this portion, it was finally surrendered to Prussia by a treaty in 1763. Joseph 2ND, the son and successor of Maria Theresa, and first of the House of Harsburge-Lourains, distinguished his reign by important Reforms in his government, and by the acquisition of Galicia from Poland in 1772 and 1795, and of Bukuvaina from Turkey. Joseph 2nd was succeeded by his brother Leopold 2nd, 1790, and he by his son Francis 2nd, 1792.
- f. In 1804, the Emperor Francis 2nd, assumed the title of Emperor of Austria, and on August 6, he renounced the title of the Emperor of Germany. This latter event had been preceded by the formation of the Confederation of the Confederation of the Rhine under Napoleon 1st, and the entire dissolution of the old Germanic Constitution. The events connected with the wars between Austria and France at this period have been already stated under France (Less. 88, No. 176a, b, c, and No. 180a, b, c, d). Shortly after the return of Napoleon 1st from his disastrous campaign against Russia in 1812, Austria joined Russia and Prussia in the general var of Independence is 1813 to crush the tyrannical power of Napoleon, and which ultimately succeeded in driving Napoleon from the throne. At the Congress of Vienna, Austria was placed at the head of a NEW GERMANIC CONFEDERATION, while it received in accession of territory—Venetia and Dalmatia. In 1835, FERDINAND, son of Francis (2nd of Germany and 1st of Austria, ascended the throne; but, on Dec. 2, 1848, in consequence of a General Insurvention throughout Germany, he was compelled to resign in favour of his nephew, Francis JOSEPH, the present emperor (1872).
- g. Francis Joseph, the present emperor, was born Aug. 18, 1830; ascended the throne Dec. 2, 1848; married April 24, 1854, to Elizabeth of Bavaria. In 1856, Austria made a degrading Concordat with the Pope; in 1859, declared war against Sardinia and France, when, having been defeated in several battles, she was compelled to agree to a treaty of peace, which was signed at Villa-Franca (July 12, 1859), by which Lombardy was ceded to Sardinia. In Jan. 1864, Austria, in conjunction with Prussia, invaded Demmark, in violation of existing treaties, and in opposition to the remonstrances both of England and France. By this invasion, Slesvick, Holstein and Lauenbury, were wrested from Demmark. (See Demmark, Less. 99, No. 231 d.) The division of the spoil, however, led to a series of recriminations between Austria and Prussia, which ended in a war between the two nations. On June 18, 1866, Prussia declared war against Austria, entered Bohemia, and, in rapid succession, defeated the Austrians in several severe engagements, particularly in Koniggratz and Sadbwa in Bohemia, (July 3, 1866), and compelled Austria to sign a treaty of Peace at Fraque, Aug. 23, 1866. By this treaty, Austria was compelled to resign all her influence in the Germannic Confederation, confine herself entirely to her own dominions, and code Venetia to the Kingdom of Italy.

On Feb. 17, 1867, the Independence of Hungary as a separate nation, with a separate ministry was fully established, and the Emperor and Empress were crowned at Buda (June 8) as King and Queen of Hungary. In Oct. 1867, the Concordat existing between Austria and the Pope was virtually annulled, and complete Liberty of Conscience granted to all Classes throughout the Empire. Since that event, the condition and prospects both of Austria and Hungary have

considerably improved.

LESSON 114,-EINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.

- 290a. Physical.—Extent, &c.—Prussia (Prussans) is bounded on the N. by the Baltic, Denmark, and the German Ocean; on the E. by Poland and Russia; on the S. by Austria and Germany; and on the W. by France, Belgium, and Holland. From a small State, it has become an extensive and powerful country, having by conquest, since 1863, made large accessions to its former territory. Cap. Berlin.
 - b. In 1861, the Area was 108,519 sq. m.; Pop. 18,491,220.
 In 1869, the Area was 136,800 sq. m.; Pop. 23,610,947.
 In 1871, the Area was 142,313 sq. m.; Pop. 25,644,838.

Foreign Possessions.—None.

- c. Gulfs, &c.—Curishe-Haff (coó-rē-shē-haf), Gulf of Dantzic, Frische-Haff, Gross-Haff, Gulf of Lubeck, Kiel Bay.
- d. Islands.—Ru'gen (Ar. 361 sq. m.; Pop. 41,500, formerly belonging to Sweden, but ceded to Prussia in 1815); Usedom and Wollin in the Baltic; and Alsen, Femeru, Sylt, Föhr, Röm, &c., wrested from Denmark in 1864.
- 291a. Surface.—The Surface on the E. consists of an extensive Plain, but diversified by many moderate elevations. The Coasts on the Baltic are low with several extensive lagoons. On the N. and East are numerous small Lakes, of which the principal are Spirding-See and Mauer-See. In South Silesia and Saxon Prussia, the Surface is hilly. Rhemish Prussia consists of elevated table-lands, except near the Rhine, where the land in some places is low.
- b. Mountains.—The Hartz in Saxon Prussia; the Riesengebirge (ree-zen-qă-beerq-ĕh) in Silesia.
- c. Rivers.—On the E.—Mem'el or Niemen, Preg'el, Vistula, Oder (with its trib. Warta). On the W.—Elbe, Weser, Ems, the Rhine (and its affluents), the Moselle and Lippě (lip-pěh).
- 292a. Climate.—The Climate is in general healthy. Along the Baltic it is moist; in Prussia Proper (that is, E. and W. Prussia), and in the South parts of Silesia near the Carpathian Mts., the winter is long and generally severe. In N. Silesia, in Brandenburg, and in the Saxon and Rhenish provinces, it is comparatively mild.
- $\delta.$ The mean Annual Temp. of Prussia Proper is 43° Fahr. ; of Central Prussia 48°; of Rhenish Prussia 49§°.

Mean Wint, of Coblentz, 35°; of Berlin, 31°; of Konigsburg, 38°. Mean Sum. of Coblentz, 67°; of Berlin, 64°; of Konigsburg, 60°.

- c. Mean Ann. Bainfall in the W. provs. is 20 in.; in the E. provs. 15 in.
- 293a. Soil, &c.—The Soil is various. In Brandenburg and Pomerania it is generally poor, consisting in many parts of tracts of sand intermixed with heaths and moors; but in other parts, particularly in the valleys, and near the rivers and lakes, there is much good land. In Prussia Proper and Poson, the soil is in general

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fertile. Silesia, and the Saxon and Rhenish provs. are the most productive districts.

- b. Minerals.—Prussia is well supplied with Minerals. Iron is found in every province; coal in Silesia, Westphalia, and Saxony; salt, copper, and lead in Saxony and Silesia; alabaster and marble in Saxony and Westphalia; and limestone, porcelain clay, alum, granite, freestone, &c., in various provinces. c. The Wild Animals comprise wild boars, stags, hares, wolves, and foxes.
- 294a. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Prussia, under a succession of warlike and ambitious Monarchs, has gradually risen from being a mere minor state to be one of the most powerful in Europe.

Surrounded by states originally larger than their own, the Prussian Monarchs appear to have been early impressed with the necessity, not only of undergoing toil and hardships themselves, but of training their sons to undergo the same, that they might thus consolidate their own power, develop the resources of their country, and, when favourable opportunities occurred, gradually and persistently extend their dominions.

b. In the following Table, the provinces strictly German are denoted by a star (*) prefixed, the Poisk by p prefixed, the Donish by d, and the recent French by f. The conquered French provinces formerly belonged to Germany; Alsace was annexed to France in 1697, and Lorrains in 1766.

Prussia Proper comprises-1. East or Ducal Prussia; 2. West or Polish Prussia.

			
c. Provinces in 1861.	Sq. Miles.	Pop. in 1864.	Chief Towns (with pop. in thou- sands),
pl. East or Ducal Prussia p2. West or Polich Prussia p3. Posen *6. Flosia *6. Brandenburg *7. Prussian Saxony *8. Westphalia *9. Rhenish Prussia *10. Hohensollern *11. Ter. of Jahde in N. Oiden	15,030 10,027 11,401 12,280 15,771 15,609 9,794 7,838 10,358 451	3,090,960 1,537,388 1,445,635 3,585,752 2,716,022 2,067,066 1,707,726 3,455,483 64,633	Stettin, 73. Breslau, 172. Breslau, 172. Breslau, 632; Potsdam, 42. Magdeburg, 78. Munster, 27. Cologne, 125; Coblentz, 28.
d. Provinces wrested from Den	5	864 :	l
dl2. Sieswick with Alsen, &c *13. Holstein with Fehmern . dl4. Lauenburg	8,514 8,295 404	406,486 554,510 49,978	Sleswick, 11; Flensburg, 20. Kiel, 18; Gluckstadt, 5. Lauenburg, 6.
e. Provinces wrested from Ger	nany in l	966 :—	
*15. Kingdom of Hanover *16. Electoral Hesse	8,673 1,810 34 214	1,923,492 737,283 466,014 89,837 32,976 75,102	Hanover, 79. Cassel, 40. Wiesbaden, 26. Frankfort, 78.
f. Districts wrested from Fran	ce in 1871	;_	
/21. Alsace, exc. Belfort } /22. Lorraine, pt. of	5,513 142,247	1,688,546 5,644,888	Strasbourg, 83; Muhlhansen, 45. Metz, 56; Thionville, 7.

g. Neufchitel, in Switzerland, was subject to Prussia from 1707 to 1848, when it threw off this supremacy and is now a member of the Swiss Confederation.

LESSON 115.—INDUSTRIAL OCCUPATIONS. 295a.—Agriculture.
—Agriculture forms the chief source of national wealth, and is carefully conducted.

b. The chief Products are wheat, rye, oats, barley, flax, hemp, hops, and tobacco. Fruit is not generally grown; but the Vine is extensively cultivated

on the banks of the Rhine and Moselle. Pasturage is excellent. Sheep, cattle, goats, and horses of improved breeds are extensively reared.

- 296a. Manufactures, &c.—The manufactures of Prussia are now extensive and important, comprising linens, woollen cloths, cottons, silks, iron-founding, carriage-building, sugar-refining, and brewing.
- b. Commerce.—Commerce has been greatly extended by the establishment of the Commercial Customs' Union, called Zolleerein, of which Prussia was the originator. The chief Exports from Prussia to Great Britain consist of wheat, timber, cattle, flax, seeds, sinc, oil, wool, oil-cake, and manufactured goods. The value of these in 1888 was 8,408,0004. The Imports from Great Britain are cotton, tea, herrings, iron, coffee, oils, coals, woollens, linens, machinery, &c.; the value of which in 1868 was 3,353,0004.
- c. The Roads which, previously to 1815, were wretched, are now macadamised, and equal to any in England. The Cross roads also are good. Most of the Rivers are navigable; in addition to these, there are excellent Canals. The Railsays in operation in 1870, amounted to 5,214 miles; of which part belong to the State, and part to private companies. d. The chief Naval Ports are Kiel, Stralsund. Dantzic, and Wilhelmshaven in the Bay of Jahde; the Commercial Ports are Memel, Konigsburg, Elbing, and Altona.
- 297a. Social Condition.—Government.—Previously to 1823, the Government of Prussia was a despotic Monarchy, and the succession hereditary in the direct male line. In that year, the institution of provincial States with very circumscribed powers was granted. In 1850, the present Constitution was established; which, however, has since been materially modified. This Constitution appoints a Limited Monarchy, in the male line of HOHENZOLLERN, according to primogeniture, and vests the Legislative Power in the King and two representative Assemblies. The first of these forms a Senate or House of Lords, consisting of about 250 members, partly hereditary, partly nominated by the King for life, and partly elected. The second or Chamber of Deputies consists of 432 members, above 30 years of age, chosen by a suffrage which gives one elector (who must be above 25 years of age) to every 250 of the population. The members of the Lower Chamber receive travelling expenses and diet money from the State of 3 dols. or 9 shillings per day. The assent of the King and of both chambers is requisite before any measure can become Law. The Freedom of the Press is a fundamental article of the Constitution.
- b. Property.—With few exceptions, there are in Prussia, neither Entails nor Majorats; but, on the death of an individual, his property, whether consisting of land or moveables, is equally divided among his children. This law must lead to the splitting up of property into minute portions, and the pauperisation of the people. c. The Public Revenue of the kingdom was in 1869—25,130,4744.; the Public Expenditure about the same. The National Debt in 1869 much so as in some of the other German States. Previously to 1810, all the Peasants or Artisans were mere Vassals, having no political or social liberty. c. Military Service is required of all men above 20 years of age; first, for 3 years as regular soldiers; next, for 4 years in the army of reserve; atterwards, for 9 years in the Landwehr or Militia, in which they are liable to be called upon for annual practice; and lastly, each soldier on leaving the Landwehr is enrolled, till he is 50 years of age, in the Landsusma, a body called out only in case of invasion. Some few exceptions from this military law are allowed in favour of the nobility, clergy, and certain persons of fortune. Pruesia, from early times, has always maintained a large military force; but, since the Treaty of Thist, Military Service, with the exceptions just mentioned, has been compulsory. The Army in Jan. 1870, amounted to 546,000 men; Reserve 214,000;

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in Garrison, 270,000; Total, 1,021,000. The Navy is manned by 2,400 mailors.

- 298a. Religion.—The great majority of the people, as well as the Royal Family, belong to the Reformed or Protestant Religion; but all denominations of Christians enjoy the same privileges, and are equally eligible to places of trust and emolument.
- b. The Protestant Church is governed by Consistories or boards appointed by government. The government has also control over the election of Roman Catholic bishops and priests. In the Rhenish provinces, the population which are chiefly blyoted Roman Catholics, every attempt to induce a person to change his religion, either by force or persuasion, is strictly prohibited by law. All controversals serrouse and mubic religious discussions are therefore for. All controversial sermons and public religious discussions are therefore forbidden. Hence, in these districts, there can be no religious freedom.
- 299a. Education.—In National Secular Education, the Prussian System has been much commended. This was at first the result of necessity; for the great continental wars had demoralised the people and prostrated their resources. The System of instruction is completely under the control of the State, from the University to the village school; for the Government appoints all professors at the Universities, and all teachers at schools. Such a system indicates an arbitrary military regimen which excludes freedom and independence of action.
- b. The different Classes of Schools are-1. The Elementary Schools, at which the great majority of people receive their education. 2. The City Schools which are always attached to a gymnasium. 3. The Gymnasia, in which Latin and Greek are taught. In many of the towns are Normal Schools for the training of teachers. Attendance either at public or private schools, from the age of 5 to that of 14 years is compulsory. No particular Beligious Creed is allowed to be taught in any school; but, on particular days, the children are instructed by the clergymen of the different denominations to which they belong. In the elementary schools, the fees are very moderate; the children of those who are too poor to pay are paid for at the public expense.
- c. The Universities are those of Berlin, Hallè, Bonn, Breslau, Griefs-walde, Konigsburg, Kiel, Gottingen, and Marburg.
- LESSON 116.—300a. Races, Language, and Character.—The people of Prussia mostly belong to two Races:—1. The Germans, who form the great or Prussa mostly belong to two Races:—1. The cermans, who form the great majority; 2. The Scavonians in Prussia Proper, Posen, and Upper Silesia. b. The German Language is that of the court and of all the better informed classes throughout the kingdom. c. The country contains about 173 persons to each square mile. d. General Character.—The Prussians as a nation are brave, industrious, and patriotic, but of less settled habits than their Southern neighbours. The early military discipline to which all males are subject (a modewhich originated from necessity after the defeat at Tilii), must, in some measure, interfere with the quiet prosecution of agricultural and commercial pursuits, and create in the minds of many young men a desire for military distinction. In the recent Franco-German war (of 1870-71), however, the conduct of the Pruesian soldiers was characterised by a moderation and forbearance towards their opponents, and an abstinence from self-glorification, which must command the admiration of everyone. The Sundays in Prussis, as in other continental countries, are devoted partly to public amusements and partly to religious worship. In the forenoons, the people generally go to church, but the rest of the day is spent in some public diversion.

301. CHIEF TOWNS AND LOCALITIES. Pop. of Towns in thousands. 301. CRIEF TOWNS AND ENGAGE.
Alx-is-Chapelle (aiz-la-shapel') in Rhenish Prussia, cel. for hot baths, once the Northern residence of Charlemagne, the coronaction-place of the German Emperors from 814 to 1831, and the seat of several Imperial Diets, p. 63.

Ber'-gen, cap, of the isle of Rugen, p. 3. Ber-cin, cap. of russia, seat of a university, the first city in Germany for trade and manufactures, p. 838.

Bonn, in Rhen, Prussia, seat of a university, p. 22.

Bran'-den-burg, manf, of linens, woollens,

Bres'-lau (low), cap. of Silesia, university, manf, of lineus, woollens, p. 200. Cas-sel, the former cap, of Hesse-Cassel.

p. 40. Cleves, in Rhen. Prussia, an ancient town,

p. 8. Cō-blenz, in Rhen. Prus., manf. of cottons,

Cö-blens, in Rhen. Prus., mant. or cottons, woollens, p. 28.

Cö-lögne (Eme), cap. of Rhen. Pruss., as strong in, manf. of stuffs, silks, p. 130.

Crefeld (krā-felt), in Rhen. Pruss., chf. manf. of silk goods, p. 53.

Dantzic, cap. of West Prus., seaport, grt. trade, manf. of fire-arms, once one of Hanse Towns, ceded to Pruss. at 2nd partit, of Poland, p. 100.

Dus-sel-dorf, in Rhen. Pruss., grt. trade, p. 44.

p. 44 Rh-ren breit-stein (brite-stine), in Rhen. Pruss., a strong fortress opp. to Co-blenz, p. 4.

Eis-le-ben (ice-ld-ben), in Pruss. Sax., bpi. of Martin Luther, p. 11.

El-her-feld, in Rhen. Pruss., manf., of

cottons, p. 16.

Br'-furt (foort), in Pruss. Sax., manf. of cottons, woollens, p. 40.

Br-lau (t-low) in E. Pruss., where the French def. the Pruss. and Russ. on

Feb. 7, 1807, p. 3.
Frankfort-on-Maine, an anc. city, once a free tn., seat of the former German Frankfort-on-Maine, an anc. city, once a free tn., seat of the former German Diet, p. 104.
Frankfort-on-Oder, in Brandenburg, manf. of silks, woollens, p. 39.
Gottingen, in Hanover, seat of a cel. university, p. 12.
Greifs-wald efryt-soul-deh), in Pomerania, university, manf. of soap, p. 17.
Halle' (hal-lah), university, manf. of hardware, bpl. of Handel and Michäelis, n. 45.

Hanover, formerly the cap. of Kingdom of Hanover, p. 105.
Kon'gsburg, cap. of B. Prussia, seaport, university, mant. of woulena, p. 112.
Lieg'-nitz (iseg-nitz), cel. for a vict. gained by Fred. the direct over the Austrians in 1760, p. 19.

Lu'neburg, in Hanover, manf. of woollens, linens, paper, p. 15. Mag'deburg, cap. of Pruss. Sax., an anc. tn., manf. of cottons, woollens, p. 110.

Marienburg, in W. Pruss, long the resid. of Grand Mast. of Teutonic Knights. p. 7.

Mem'el, in E. Prusa, seaport, grt, trade in timber, p. 17. Min'den, in Westphalia, where the Brit.

def. French in 1759, p. 17.

Mun'ster, cap. of Westphalia, cel. for a
Treaty of Peace in 1648, after 30 years' war, p 27.

Posen, cap. of Posen, grt. trade, once the cap. of anc. Poland. p. 53.

Pots'dam, in Brandenburg, bpl. of A Von Humboldt; the second royal resid. of Prussia; nr. it is the pal. of Sans-Souci, the fav. resid. of Fred. the Great,

p. 43.
Stet'tin, cap. of Pomerania, the second port in Prussia, p. 97.
Thorn, in W. Pruss., bpl. of Copernicus the astronomer, p. 16.

the satronomer, p. 18.
Ti'sit, in E. Prussia, cel. for a treaty
signed here in 1807, bct. Napoleon lat
and Alexander of Russia, when Alexander recognised the Confederation of
the Rhine, &c., p. 16.
Trèves, in Ruen. Pruss. (anc. Augusta
Trevivorum), and long the cap. of a
German Electorate, p. 21.
Wittenburg, in Prussian Baxony; here
the Reformation commenced in 1517
by Luther, and here he burnt the papal
bull, p. 13.

bull, p. 13,

LESSON 117.—302a. HETORY.—The ancient inhabitants of the Northern part of Prussia were the *Vandāli* and *Burgundiönes*, Gothic races, whose settlements were frequently changed. The name *Prussia* is said to be derived from the *Boruses*, a Sclavonian people, who, after the Goths, inhabited the territory now forming the Provinces of *East* and *West Prussia*. These people after many bloody wars were subjugated by the German Knights of the Testonic Order, and forced, about 1286 A.D., to profess Christianity. About the same time, Konigsburg was built and made the capital. In 1454, in consequence of the tyranny of the Knights, the Western half of Prussia revolted, and succeeded in 1466 in placing itself under the protection of Poland; while the Eastern part remained subject to the Knights; who, however, were from that time compelled to acknowledge themselves Vassals of Poland. They afterwards made repeated attempts to throw off this yoke, but without success.

b. In 1415, Sigismund, Emperor of Germany, King of Hungary, and Margrave of Brandenburg, being hard pressed by the Turks, was induced to sell for 400,000 ducate, the margraviate, afterwards electorate, of Brandenburg to FREDERICK VON HOHENZOLLERN (of the Hechingen or younger branch of the family), who was then Burgrave or resident governor of Nurembury. Frederick, by this purchase, laid the foundation of the future greatness of the present royal and imperial family of Prussis. Nurembury at this period was the Eirmingham of Germany. Its resident Governor or Burgrave was appointed by the emperor, and generally held his office for life. The burgrave frequently united to his Military office the business of a merchant. Subsequently, the executive officers were appointed by the merchant aristocracy of the town, consisting of about 30 of the principal families. Nuremburg continued a free town of the empire till 1805, when it was annexed to Bayaria by Napoleon 1st.

c. In 1515, after an ineffectual struggle to obtain their independence the Teutonic Knights appointed ALBERT, a descendant of Frederick Hohenzollern

and margrave of Brandenburg, their Grand Master. Albert immediately made peace with Poland. In 1529, Albert, having renounced the Roman Catholic religion and embraced Lutheranism, succeeded in obtaining by treaty with Poland the secularisation and erection of Rast Pressia into a Duchy in favour of himself and his heirs. By this act, the sway of the Teutonic Knighte was dissolved. In 1827, Albert married a princess of Denmark; in 1844, he founded the University of Konigsburg, and died in 1868. From 1868 to 1608 nothing occurred worthy of particular notice.

- d. 1608-1640.—In 1608, JOHN SIGISMUND, a descendant of Duke Albert, succeeded as Margrave of Brandenburg and Duke of Prussia. Shortly afterwards, the margraviate was made an *Electorate*. John was thus the first *Elector* of Brandenburg. He died in 1619, and was succeeded by his son GEORGE WILLIAM, who reigned till 1640.
- e. 1640-1688.—FREDERICK WILLIAM, surnamed the GREAT ELECTOR, succeeded his father George William in 1640. He began his reign by restoring order to the finances and correcting the abu-es which the Thirty Years' war had entailed on his country. At the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, he obtained the districts of Haiberstadi, Minden, and part of Pomerania. In 1657, he compelled Poland to acknowledge Ducad or East Prussia a free and independent State. In 1678-80, he added Magdeburg and the remainder of Pomerania to his possessions. For the descent of the Prince of Orange on England in 1688, he furnished several regiments. Frederick died in April 1688.
- f. 1688-1713.—FREDERICK 38D, son of Frederick William, succeeded as *Elector* in 1688. In 1701, he obtained from the Emperor of Germany the dignity of King, as Frederick 18T; and on Jan 18, he crowned himself and consort in an assembly of the States. In 1707, he added *Neufchâtel* to Prussia, and in 1712 the principality of *Meurs*. Frederick died in 1713.
- g. 1718-1740.—FREDERICK WILLIAM 18T, son of Frederick 1st, succeeded in Feb. 1713, and reigned to May 1740. This king laid the foundation of the afterwards famous Frussian army; his fondness for tall soldiers is well-known. He was remarkable for austrity in exacting obedience to his commands; and yet, at other times, was affable in his intercourse with his subjects. In his expenditure he was economical, and in business transactions strict and prompt. Though adverse to the abstruse sciences and flue arts, he gave great encouragement to manufactures and the useful arts. He added to the Prussian dominions—Straitsund, Limburg, and the islands of Rugen, Usedom, and Wollin. On his death in May 1740, he left to his son and successor 9,000,000 dollars; an army of 70,000 men; and a territory containing about 2,400,000 inhabitants.
- 303a. 1740-1786.—FREDERICK 2ND, commonly called THE GREAT, succeeded his father, Frederick William 1st, in 1740. Frederick was one of the most remarkable men not only of his own but of any other age. By the care of his mother he had been early imbued with the low of literature, and afterwards was the author of several works. On his accession to the throne his great object was the annexation of Silesia to Prussia. Seizing the opportunity presented by the death of Charles 6th, emperor of Germany, when his daughter Maria Theresa was assailed by the electors of Bavaria and Saxony, Frederick urged his claim to the Duchy of Silesia, which, being refused, served as a pretext for his invading it in 1740. In this conflict, Maria received some assistance from England, but so powerful were her encuies, that she was compelled to ceae Upper and Lower Silesia and the county of Glatz to Prussia in 1742. In 1744. a second war broke out with Austria (aided on this occasion by Saxony) against Prussia. This war, after several severe engagements, was ended by the treaty of Dresden in 1745, by which Frederick retained Silesia. This cession was afterwards confirmed to him at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. In the eleven succeeding years, 1744-05. Frederick was unremitting in his attention to the internal administration of his dominions, the improvement of his revenues, and the strengthening of his newly-acquired territory of Silesia.
- b. In 1755, war having broken out between England and France, the former concluded a treaty with Frederick in order to secure Hanover from invasion. This led to a secret alliance between France, Austria, Saxony, Russia, and Sweden for the subjugation of Prussia and the partition of her dominions amongst the contracting powers. Frederick, having been secretly informed through the treachery of a clerk in the Saxon chancery, resolved to anticipate his enemies, and immediately invaded Saxony on Aug. 24, 1756. This was the beginning of the Third Silesian War, or as it is generally called—The Second

- Four's War. In this extraordinary contest, the only ally of Pruss's was England, who allowed her an annual grant of 670,0001. By the judicious measures, consummate skill, and daring bravery of Frederick, Prussia went through the terrible struggle, and came out triumphant. Of 14 great battles fought in this war, Frederick gained nine. At length, peace was concluded between England and France; Austria was left alone by the other powers, and compelled at the peace of Hubertsburg to guarantee the cession of Silesia to Prussia. From that time, Prussia has been recognised as one of the five great powers of Europe.
- c. In the latter part of his reign, Frederick planned, and, in conjunction with Russia and Austria (the latter an unwilling ally), executed the first iniquitous partition of Poland, obtaining for his share in 1772, all Polità (now West) Prussia and the Duchy of Posen. From that time Prussia Proper was divided into Basr and Wesr PRUSSIA. Frederick died in Aug. 1786, at his favorite palace of Sans-Souci, in the 75th year of his age and the 47th of his reign, leaving to his nephew Frederick William 2nd, a kingdom enlarged from 47,770 sq. miles to 74,840 sq. miles.
- d. Frederick the Great was distinguished for many great qualities: he was a consummate general, a far-seeing politician, a prudent statesman, and an accomplished scholar. His courage in action was invincible, his firmness under reverses, which would have crushed almost any other man, was unshaken; and his diligence indefatigable. All these commanding qualities, however, appear to have sprung from the love of fame, power, and territorial aggrandisement. Of Religious Faith he was, like his friend Voltaire, totally destitute, and many mean and selfish actions stain his character.
- LESSOW 118.—304. 1786-97.—FREDERICK WILLIAM 2ND succeeded his uncle, Frederick the Great, in 1786. In 1787, he sent an army to Holland to reinstate the Stadtholder, who had married his sister. In 1792, he joined the first Coalition against the French Republic, but obtained little glory, as he withdrew from the Coalition and purchased peace with the French by the cession, in April 1795, of the Prussian territory West of the Rhine. In the Second Partition of Poland in 1793, Prussia obtained Dantsic and Thorn; and, iso, the principalities of Anspach and Beireuth were acquired by purchase. The Prussian States now comprised about 100,000 sq. miles, with a population of 9,000,000 inhabitants.
- 305a. 1797 to 1840.—FREDERICK WILLIAM SRD succeeded his father, Nov. 16, 1797. He commenced his reign by re-organising the internal administration, and for years, preserved a strict neutrality with the French Republic. At the peace of Luneville in 1801, he accepted from France, Hildesheim and other bishoprics in return for the territories on the West bank of the Rhine previously ceded to France. The policy of the Prussian government, at this perious onsidered by the continental nations selfish and ignoble. When Napoleon crowned himself Emperor in 1804, Frederick William was the first to acknowledge him. In 1805, he obsequiously surrendered Pranconia to France, and received Hanover in return. This provoked a war with England, who selsed all the Prussian vessels in her ports. Notwithstanding this accession of Hanover, there existed no real friendship between the timid Frederick and the imperious Napoleon, for he was treated by the latter as a man merely to be kept quiet till a more convenient opportunity occurred for crushing him effectually.
- b. At length, having received several provocations, Frederick listened to the persuasions of Russia by demanding from Napoleon the evacuation of Germany by the French armies. Napoleon gave a prompt and decided refusal, and war immediately began, Oct. 1, 1806. Within a fortnight from its commencement, Prussia was prostrate on the field of JEAA; in another fortnight, Napoleon entered Berlin. By the defeat of the allied Russians and Prussians at Eyloss on Feb. 8, 1807, and again at Friedland on June 14, 1807, nearly the whole of Prussia fell into the hands of the French. Frederick William and Alexander of Russia then sued for peace, which was settled at the memorable meeting of the three sovereigns on the raft at Tizstr, July 7, 1807. By this Treaty, Frederick was deprived of half of his dominions, comprising all the territories West of the Ribe, and the greater part of Prussian Poland. He was also compelled to pay 6,000,000L sterling to France, to reduce his army to 40,000 men, to supply to Napoleon a contingent of 20,000, surrender the fortresses of Stettin, Kustrein, and Glogau, and support on his diminished territory 180,000 French troops until

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the end of 180%. These terms, though cruelly hard, were strictly fulfilled by Frederick. On his return in 1809 to Berlin, when the French evacuated it, he made many popular reforms, abolished the last remnant of peasant Serfdom, declared merit and talent the sole qualifications for the public service, rendered the municipal corporations more open and independent, and, by a rigid economy, gradually recruited the finances of his diminished Kingdom. As his army by the same treaty had been limited to 40,000 men, he effected through the able assistance of his faithful ministers, Fon Stein and Baron Hardenberg, a complete change in the Military System. By this, every able man was bound henceforth to be trained to bear arms, and serve in the army for 3 years. Such was the origin of the present Prussian Military System which has enabled Prussia in 1870-71 not only to repel the recent invasion of Germany, led on by the nephew of the monarch who had imposed such severe restrictions, but to capture the imperial commander himself, defeat his numerous hosts, and subjugate his empire.

- c. On Napoleon's invasion of Russia in 1812, Prussia, in accordance with the Tüst treaty, furnished him with the required contingent of 20,000 men. These fought well, but, on Napoleon's retreat, the commander, York, suddenly made a truce with the Emperor Alexander, by which his men were permitted to retreat numolested to Prussia. On Feb. 28, 1813, the King signed a treaty of alliance with Russia, and on March 17 following, he issued a Proclamation in which he enumerated the indignities, hardships, and crustices to which he and his people had for several years been subject. This roused the whole country against France. Napoleon, however, with his usual promptitude, soon attacked the combined Russians and Prussians, defeated them first at Lutzen on May 2, 1813, and again at Bautzen on May 2.1. In the meantime, Austria and Sweden joined the allies. Napoleon gained another victory at Dresden on Aug. 27; but, afterwards, he sustained a signal defeat at Lutzens, Oct. 18, 1813. The allies, following up their victory, proceeded immediately to France, which they entered at the close of the year. After fighting several battles, of which the last was that of Montmarire near Paris, March 30, 1814, they entered Paris on the following day. On April 2, Napoleon was deposed by the Senate, on the 11th he was banished to the isie of Elba by the allied sovereigns, and the Bourbons restored to the throne of their ancestors on May 3, 1814. On the settlement of affairs in France, Fredérick, Alexander, and Blucher visited London.
- d. The Congress of Vienna in 1815, restored to Frederick the Grand Duchy of Poses and nearly all his former German Possessions, in addition to which he received a great part of Saxony and the Duchy of the Lower Rhine. He also obtained Swedish Pomerania in exchange for Lauenburg. Frederick, along with the other sovereigns, signed the second treaty of Paris. Afterwards, he joined the Holy Alliance, by which he was led to violate the promises which he had given his people of granting them a Representative Constitution. The Holy Alliance, which originated with Alexander for the ostensible object of perpetuating the peace of Europe, and of determining political transactions according to Christian principles, was ratified on Sept. 28, 1815, by the emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia. After a long and eventful reign, Frederick William died June 7, 1840, and was succeeded by his son.
- 306a. 1840-61.—FREDERICK WILLIAM 4TH succeeded his father, June 7, 1840. In 1848, shortly after the third great Revolution in France, an Insurrection broke out in Berlin, when the King was compelled to grant to his subject the long promised Constitution, Dec. 5, 1848. The year 1848 has been properly designated 'THE YEAR OF REVOLUTIONS.' Shortly afterwards, so great a desire prevailed in Germany of amaigamating all the principalities into one strong united nation, that on March 28, 1849, the King was elected by a German Kational Assembly hereditary Emperor of the Germans. After much hesitation, however, he declined the offered dignity, April 29, 1849. In this year, also, the Holsteiners revolted against Denmark, but, on the interference of Austria, the revolt was suppressed. In 1850, a new Constitution for Prussia was promulgated. In 1862, Prussia joined in the treaty intended to secure 'the fourth son of Duke Wilhelm of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glucksburg, to the Danish throne on the demise of the reigning soveredgin.' On Jan. 25, 1858, Prince Frederick William (now the Prince Imperial), son of the Prince Regent (now King of Prussia), married the Princes Royal of England, Frederick William (and was succeeded by his brother, William 1st.

- 307a. 1861.—WILLIAM 1st, formerly REGENT, on the death of his brother, succeeded, Jan. 2, 1861, and was crowned with his consort at Konigsburg, Oct. 18 of the same year. On March 2, 1862, a bill making the Ministry responsible, passed the Prussian Parliament, and on Sept. 30 following, Count, now Prince Bismark, was appointed Premier of the ministry. In Sept. 1863, after several violent contentions between the representatives and ministry his King dissolved the chambers, stating that he would govern without a parliament; notwithstanding this, the country re-elected a majority of liberal representatives in October following.
- b. On the death of Frederick 7th, King of Denmark (the last of the direct male line of the house of Oldenburg), on Nov. 18, 1868, Frederick, duke of Augustenburg, claimed the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, though his father had solemnly, in 1852, abjured all right to them; and, though Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Gluckburg had, by the treaty of London of 1852, been declared the rightful heir. This led to important consequences. For, the German Diet, which met at Frankfort in Dec. 1863, resolved, notwithstanding the above treaty, to support the Duke of Augustenburg and assert the union of those Duchies with Germany. For this purpose, the Diet sent a federal execution (that is, an army drafted from the several states) to take possession of them, Dec. 24. In January 1864, however, the Prusdans and Austrians, acting independently of the Diet, sent an allied army into the duchies; upon which the Federal troops, after protesting against the Prusdans and Austrian intervention, gradually withdrew. The Duchies were then soon overmun by the allied forces. On Oct. 30, 1864, a treaty of Peace was signed at Vienna, when Christian, King of Denmark, resigned the Duchies to the disposal of the allies, agreed to a rectification of his Frontier, and to pay a large sum of money to defray the expenses of the war. This invasion has always been regarded an unjust and cruel one, undertaken in violation of the treaty of 1852 (which both Prussia and Austria had signed), and in opposition to the remonstrances of England and France. By this war, Denmark was despoiled of Schlessig, Holstein, Lauenburg, and the islands of Alsen, Femern, and several smaller once.
- c. Though the Duchies had been severed from Denmark, the administration of them became a source of angry dispute between Austria, Prussia, and the German Diet. At length, a Convention was held at Gasteis in the Tyrol, Aug. 14, 1865, at which it was decided that the Duke of Augustenhurg had no right whatever to the Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, and that the King of Denmark, who was the legal possessor, having resigned his rights by the treaty of Vienna, to their Majesties the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria, the duchies would therefore be held for the present, jointly by those soversigns. By a provisional arrangement made at this time, the government of Holstein was left to Austria, that of Schleswig to Prussia. Lausenburg was attached abcolutely to Prussia for a sum of money paid to Austria. At the abovenamed Convention, the injustice of the invasion of Denmark was in substance admitted by the invading sovereigns; but no reparation has yet been made to injured Denmark (Nov. 1871). Shortly afterwards, however, a misunderstanding or an ill-feeling having arisen between the two powers, Prussia, on March II, 1866, claimed jurisdiction over Holstein as well as over Schleswig; and, following up this claim, sent an army on June 7th to take possession of the duchy, when the Austrians, to avoid an open rupture, retired. From this proceeding and from the recriminatory correspondence which passed between the two powers, it was clear that war was imminent, particularly as Prussia had formed an alliance, offensive and defensive, with Haly in May 1866. On June 14, 1866, the Federal Diet met at Frankfort, when Austria, Saxony, Hanover, and others demanded the demobilisation of the Prussian army. This was bringing affairs to a crisis, for Prussia must either submit or declare war. She gave a roompt refusal, and at the same time declared the GRMANIC CONFEDEIATION DISSOLVED. On the following day, June 15, Prussia declared war against Austria, Hanover, Saxony, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Frankfort. In this contest she w

affairs; while Prussia was henceforth to be the dominant power in Germany, with the recognised possession of the conquered Danish provinces of Schlessig-Holstein, Lauenburg, and the islands of Alsen, Femera, &c., as well as of the German provinces of Hanover, Heuse-Causel, Nassau, and Frankfort-on-Maine. A little before the Treaty of Peace had been signed, the old Germanic Diet met at Augsburg, Aug. 4, 1866, and solemnly sanctioned the Dissolution of the German Confederation, which had continued for about 50 years. Soon afterwards, two new Confederation were formed; one called the North German Confederation, under the absolute control of Prussia; and the other, the South German Confederation, under the presidency of Bavaria. (Both these are now under the newly-formed German Empire.) The members of the North German Confederation met for the first time in Berlin, Feb. 24, 1867, when a Federal Constitution was formally adonted. affairs; while Prussia was henceforth to be the dominant power in Germany, was formally adopted.

d. On July 15, 1870, France wantonly declared war against Prussia, ostensibly in consequence of the Candidature for the crown of Spain of the Prince of Hohensollern, a relative of the King of Prussia. The challenge, however, was accepted. At first, the Prussians acted merely on the defensive; while the French captured and burnt Saarbruck, Aug. 2. In a short time, however, the French captured and Ultrat Scarorucz, aug. 2. In a short time, however, the position of affairs was completely changed, and the great superiority of Prussian skill and tactics was, to the surprise of most people, made evident. For, in nearly all the severe engagements, the French, though they fought with great bravery, were uniformly defeated. On Sept. 2, Napoleon 8rd surrendered in person at Sedan to the King of Prussia; and shortly after, Mac Mahon and his person at cease to the King of Prussia; and shortly after, Mac Mahon and his whole army of 70,000 men also surrendered. On Sept. 19, Paris was invested by the Prussians; and, on Oct. 26th following, Mets, the strongest fortress in the Empire, capitulated, when Marshal Bazaine and his whole army of 173,000 men became prisoners of war. Such severe losses had never before been sustained by France. (See France. Less. 92, 1884.)

On Jan. 29, 1871, the King of Prussia was dignified by the assembled German Dullament and Screening and the that the Manuary Parison of Comman.

Parliament and Sovereigns with the title of HEREDITARY EMPEROR OF GERMANY raniament and Sovereigns with the tutle of Herichtran Lamenon of Germany and King of Prussia. On the same day, also, Paris capitulated to the Prussians; and on Feb. 26th following, a Treaty of Peace was ratified by the French National Assembly. By this treaty, Alsoce (with the exception of Belfort) and that part of Lorraine which includes Mets and Thionville have been ceded to Germany. In addition to this, a pecuniary indemnity of 200,000,000. has to be paid by France to Prussia within 3 years, and the occupancy of parts of the country by German troops at the expense of the French has to be endured till the whole is paid. This is a bitter retribution for the miserlesinflicted on Germany

by the French under Napoleon 1st, 65 years ago!

308. Electors of Brandenburg and Dukes of Kings of Prussia.

John Sigismund, Elector of Brandenburg and Duke of Prussia, a fief of Poland. Poland.

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174 1608-19

1786-97 Frederick William 2nd, Elector of Brandenburg and King of Prussia.
1797-1804 Frederick William 2nd, Elector of Brandenburg and King of Prussia.
The same. In 1804 the old German Empire was dissolved, when Electors 1804-1840 ceased. The Emperors of Austria were hereditary in their own do-

ceased. The ampeters is a second minions only.
Frederick William 4th, King of Prussia.
William 1st, King of Prussia.
The same. King of Prussia and Hereditary Emperor of Germany. 1840-61 1861-70

1871

LESSON 119.—THE GERMANIC EMPIRE PROM 'A.D. 912 TO 1866.

- 309a. Boundaries. The Extent of Germany has varied from the times of the Romans to the present day.
- b. During the early periods of the Roman Empire, Germany was bounded on the N. by Denmark, the Baltic, and the German Ocean; on the S. by the Danube; on the E. by Sarmatia (Modern Poland), and on the W. by Gallia Belgica (Modern Holland and Belgium). On the decline of the Boman Power, it was over run by various hordes of barbarians. Subsequently, it formed a part of the vast Empire of Charlemagne.
- c. On the dismemberment of the empire of Charlemagne and the extinction of the German branch of his family in 912 a.D., the Second German Empire extended, not regularly, but frequently, from Denmark, the Batic, and the German Ocean on the North to the confines of Naples in Italy on the South, and from Poland and Hungary on the East to the kingdoms of France and Burgundy on the West.
- d. In 1458 (when the Turks obtained possession of Constantinople), the limits of the German Empire were circumscribed, having on the North the Baltic, Denmark, and the German Coean; on the South Switzerland, Italy, and the Adriatic; on the East Poland, and Hungary; on the West France and the Netherlands. Germany now includes the countries forming the North and South German Confectations.
- SIGA. SEFICE OF THE SUCCESSIVE GOVERNMENTS.— Under Charlemagne and his immediate successors, the Sovereign Power was hereditary. But, in 887, the great Feudatories (the Dukes, Landgraves, &c.) who, under indolent or weak sovereigns, had long possessed almost absolute power in their own dominions, deposed their Emperor, Charles the Fat, and elected his nephew in his stead. The practice of Election, thus introduced, continued down to 1804, when the reigning Emperor ceased to be styled the Emperor of Germany, and assumed the title of Emperor of Austria.
- b. Under the German Empire, there was no territory whatever attached to the Title of Emperor, he had, therefore, to depend entirely on his own hereditary dominions, as the only source of his power, and even of his subsistence. If his own domains were small, his power was extremely limited; but, if extensive, he could then command respect. The Emperor was elected at Frankfort-on-the-Maine. Immediately after the election, he swore to observe the Constitution, and afterwards was solemnly crowned.
- **311**a. Electors.—The Privilege of Voting on the Election of Emperor was restricted to only a few of the most powerful Feudatories. In 1856, the Electors were seven, namely, the Archbishops of Mayerne, Trèves, and of Cologne, the Duke of Saxony, the Count Palatine of the Rhine, the Margrave of Brandenburg, and the King of Bohemia.
- b. Afterwards the Electors consisted of ten, namely, of one ecclesiastical and nine secular Electors. The ecclesiastical elector was the Archbishop of Mayence, who was also archchancellor. The secular Electors were Bohemia, Bararia (formed from the Palatinate of the Rhine), Saxony, Brandenburg, Brunswick, Luneburg or Hanover, Salsburg (secularised in 1802), Wurtemburg, Baden, and Hesse-Cassel. (The electorates of Trèves and Cologne had disappeared.) The Electors could either act personally or by deputies.
- 312a. Diets and Circles. Public Affairs were transacted in Diets or Assemblies of the great Feudatories and of the Representatives of the free cities. For the convenience of selecting Deputies to

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attend these Assemblies of the States, the Empire was, in 1512, divided into Eight Circles.

- b. The Circles at that time were Franconia, Bavaria, Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, Westphalia, and Saxony. Several alterations from this arrangement were afterwards made.
- c. At the period of the First French Revolution in 1789, Germany was divided into Ton Circles, namely:—
- Circle of Austria, which comprised Austria Proper, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, the Tyrol, Vorariberg, and Constance.
- 2. Bavaria, comprising the E. and S. portions of modern Bavaria, east of the Rhine, with the archbishopric of Salzburg.
- 3. Burgundy, including Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, Gueldres, Flanders, Hainaut, and Namur.
- Pranconia included parts of modern Baden, Hesse, and Bavaria, of which the chief cities were Nuremburg, Wurzburg, Beireuth, and Anspach.
- 5. The Palatinais included—a. The Lover Palatinais of the Rhine, of which the chief towns were Heidelburg, Simmern, and Deux Ponts. b. The Upper Palatinais consisted of Rhenish Bayaris and Rhenish Prussia.
- 6. The Upper Rhine, situated on the right bank of the Rhine, now mostly included in the late Riccioral Hesse and Hesse Darmstadt, of which the chief cities were Worms, Spires, Strasburg, Frankfort-on-the-Maine, and Basle.
- 7. Upper Saxony comprised the modern kingdom of Saxony, the Provinces of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Anhalt, Weimar, and the other Saxon duchies.
- Brandenburg, Fomerania, Annait, Weimar, and the other Saxon duchies.

 8. Lower Saxony comprised Hanover, Brunswick, Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Strelitz, Magdeburg, Holstein, with Lubeck, Hamburg, Bremen, &c.
- 9. Swabis comprised modern Wurtemburg, Baden, Hohensoliern, &c., and the free cities of Augsburg, Uim, and 29 others.
- 10. Westphalia comprised the distrets between the Meuse and Weser, Lower Saxony and Holland, and contained the cities of Munster, Liège, Cleves, Cologne, Aix-la-Chapeile, and Dartmund. The chief portions are now included in Prussia and Hanover.
- d. In 1808, the Circles were reduced to Nine, Burgundy ceasing to be included. All these Circles have no longer any political existence, but are frequently mentioned in History. (See Maccullock's Geog. Dict.)
- **LESSON 120.—313**a. The Diet.—Though the Emperor was the nominal chief of the Empire, the supreme authority was vested in the *Diet*. This was composed of three Colleges; namely, 1. The College of *Electors*; 2. The College of *Princes*; 3. The College of *Imperial Towns*. The Empire was styled 'The Holy Roman Empire.'
- b. 1. The Electoral College, as before stated, consisted of one ecclesiastical and nine secular Electors. 2. The second College consisted of the spiritual and the temporal Princes of the Empire, who were in rank next to the Electors. The votes of these amounted to 131. 3. The third College comprised the free Imperial cities, consisting of 14 Rhenish and 37 Swabian cities. The ordinary meetings were formerly summoned by the Emperor twice a year, generally at Ratisbon. Each college voted separately, and when their respective decisions agreed, the matter was presented for the ratification of the Emperor, after which it became Law, and was called 'Conclision Imperial.' The Emperor could refuse his ratification, but could not modify the decision of the Diet.
- c. The Diet had the right of enacting, abolishing, and interpreting laws, of declaring war, concluding peace, contracting alliances, imposing taxes for the expenses of the empire, &c. A declaration of war was decided by a majority of votes, when those who had voted against it were obliged to furnish their contingents.
- d. For the settlement of points in dispute between the members of the Empire, two tribunals were appointed:—1. The Autic Council, established by Maximilian 1st in 1806, which sat at the residence of the emperor. 2. The Comeral Tribunal, which sat at Wetzlar. These were composed of members delegated by the different states of the empire, over whom an imperial deputy presided.

- S14a. COMMERCIAL LEAGUES.—As the Federal tie by which the respective states were held together was only feeble, and as the interests and pretensions of the states were often conflicting, they were frequently at war with each other, or with the Emperor. There was, in consequence, a great want of security. The wish to repress the numerous disorders and tyrannical imposts incident to such a state of things led at an early period to the Formation of Leagues among the smaller States and commercial Towns. The Leagues which is the best known in modern times, and was always the most important, was that formed by certain towns called Hanse-Towns. These were free towns, not only of Germany, but also of Holland, Belgium, and Norway, generally bordering on the sea, which associated for mutual protection against piracy, robbery, and the heavy exactions of arbitrary governments.
- b. The term hanse was given by the contracting parties, either from the ceremony of plighting their faith by a grasp of the hand (hanse), or from the same word, which in German signifies a largue or association.
- c. At first only Lubect and Hamburg formed an association, about A.D. 1140. This having succeeded, a League, comprising several additional towns, was signed in 1241 A.D. By degrees, the strength and reputation of the league so increased that most of the great commercial cities of Europe sought to become members of it. In 1370 A.D. the League comprised 66 cities, besides 44 confederates, including London, Bordeaux, Marseilles, Barcelona, Amsterdam, Bruges, Leghorn, Naples, Bergen, &c. In 1428 A.D., the League having declared war against Denmark with a large army and strongly equipped navy, so excited the fears of several sovereigns that they ordered the merchants of their respective dominions to withdraw from the association. The 30 years' war in Germany (1618 to 1648) broke up the strength of the association, which afterwards gradually dwindled away. The only Hanseatic towns now remaining are Lubeck, Hamburg, and Bremen.
- 215a. The Hapsburg Dynasty. In 1272, Rudolf 1st, count of Hapsburg, in Aargau, Switzerland, was elected Emperor of Germany; and, under trying difficulties, proved himself a wise, valiant, and able prince. He is the founder of the Hapsburg dynasty, which, through the female line, still reigns in Austria; but the castle of Hapsburg, the ancestral residence of Rudolf, has long ceased to belong to his posterity. Though the dignity of emperor was elective, yet, since the year 1438, the predominant influence of the house of Austria secured, with one or two interruptions, the office in hereditary succession to its sovereign.
- b. On July 12, 1806, the old Germanic Constitution was dissolved by the influence of Napoleon 1st, and a new League formed, called the CONFEDERATION OF THE REINE, and signed at Paris by-several Electors of the German Empty. By this deed, Napoleon declared himself 'Protector of the Confederation;' while the Emperor of Germany was compelled to renounce his former title and authority, and assume merely the title of Emperor of Austria, which he retains.
- The Confederation of the Rhine under Napoleon 1st lasted from July 1806 to 1814, and consisted of France, Bavaria, Wurtemburg, Baden, Westphalia, Saxony, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Darinstadt, Nassau, Berg, and about 20 principalities. All these were bound respectively to supply a contingent of men in case of war, which, exclusive of the armies furnished by France, amounted to 258,000 men. This Confederation terminated with the downfall of Napoleon in 1814. At the formation of this confederation, several princes, partisans of Napoleon, received new and higher titles, as, the Electors of Bavaria and Saxony who were made Aings with an accession of territory; while many towns and principalities lost their political influence, and several petty princes were mediatized, that is, deprived of their sovereign rights.

LESSON 121,—GERMANIC CONFEDERATION FROM 1815 TO 1866.

316a. On the final overthrow of Napoleon 1st in 1815, there was a General European Peace, when the allied Sovereigns met in Congress at Vienna, and re-established, with some modifications, the former Germanic Confederation. This on its re-establishment comprised 39 Sovereign States, which were subsequently reduced to 34.

b. By the Constitution then agreed upon, a Federative Diet, which sat at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, was declared the Centre Point and organ of the Confederation. It exercised its authority in a double form: 1. As a General Assembly celled Plenum; and 2. As a Minor Council, or Committee of the Federative Government. The Plenum met only when an Organic Change was to be introduced, or any affair relating to the whole Confederation was to be decided. The Plenum contained 69 Votes, of which Austria, Prussia, and the other states had votes in proportion to their importance, as stated in the subjoined Table. The Committee of Federative Government was composed of 17 Votes, of which the Eleven Principal States had each a single vote, and the remainder only 6 joint votes, as given in the Table. Austria presided in both assemblies, and decided in case of equality. The Committee of the Federative Government had the initiative, and deliberated on the projects which were to be presented to the Plenum, where they were not debated, but simply decided by a majority of Ayes or Noes.

317a. A Table of States forming the Germanic Confederation from 1815 to 1866.

		Votes in		
States.	Bq. Miles.	Plonum.	Commit.	
First Rate German States.				
I. Austrian Germany	76,288 72,065	1 1	1	
2. Prussian Germany	12,000	•	1	
Second Bate German States.		ı	{	
3. Bavaria (Kingdom of)	29,445	4	1	
t transman	5,779	4	1	
l a warman w	14,854 7.582	4	ī	
7. Baden (Grand Duchy)	5.912	1 1	1	
Third Rate German States.	0,014	•	•	
A Wassa Chanal (Blostomto)		١.		
O Hoses Dammstadt (Grand Dushw)	3,692 3,337	3	1	
10. Holstein and Lauenburg	3,699		1	
11. Luxemburg and Limburg	1,845	1 1	1 ; 1	
12. Brunswick	1,425	;	1 1	
13. Mecklenburg-Schwerin	5,189	ءَ ا	[
14. Nassau	1,817	3		
Fourth Rate and Petty States,				
15. Saxe-Weimar	1,408	1	43	
16. Saxe-Meiningen	914	l ī	31	
17. Saxe-Altenburg	510	l ī	17	
18. Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	761	1 1	(1)	
19. Mecklenburg-Strelits	1,053	1	1 1	
21. Anhalt	2,429	1 1	{}	
22. Swartzburg-Sondershausen	1,169	1	{}	
23. Swartsburg-Rudoldstadt	871	l i	1 #(
24. Lightenstein	61	l i	1 37	
25. Waldeck	483	l i		
26. Reuss-Greitz	144	l i		
27. Reuss-Schleitz	819	l i	1 15	
28. Lippe-Schaumburg	171	1	l îi	
29. Lippe-Detmoid	438	1		
30. Hesse-Homburg	106	1	l (J	
22. Frankfort-on-Maine	127	1	(†)	
38. Bremen	89 74	1 1	l †5	
24. Hamburg	135	†	I ()	
Area	343,763	65	17	
	,		••	

b. Germany, as settled by the Congress of Vienna in 1815, was divided (as before stated) into 39 Sovereign States; of these 5 had ceased before 1866, 8axe-Gotho became extinct in 1826, and the territory divided between Coburg and Meiningen. The former three divisions of Anhalt were in 1863 merged into one Duchy. The two princes of Hohensollern abdicated in 1849 in favour of their kinsman, the King of Prussis, the head of the house of Hohensollern. There were thus only 34 states before the extinction of the Confederation Prussia in 1866.

LESSON 122.-318. List of German Emperors from a.d. 800.

Carlowingian Line.

- 800. Charlemagne, or Charles the
- 814. Louis 1st, le Debonnaire, the Affable, also King of France.
- 840. Lothaire 1st, son of Louis.
 843. Louis 2nd, son of Louis 1st,
 styled King of the Germans. In his reign were appointed Margraves, or lords-defenders of the borders or marshes; and Burgs were founded, that is, fortified towns or castles, to prevent the inroads of the Normans and Sciavonians.
- 875. Charles 2nd, the Bald, also King of France.

- 877. Interregnum of 3 years. 880. Charles 3rd, the Fat, also King of France; but the Germans deposed him, and elected in his place his nephew Arnulf. From this time the succession ceases to be hereditary, and becomes elective.
- 887. Arnulf, nephew of Charles the
- Fat, elected. 899. Louis 3rd, son of Arnulf, the last of the Carlovingian line in Germany.

Saxon Dynasty.

- 911. Conrad 1st, duke of Franconia elected King. Otho, duke of Saxony, to whom the crown had been offered, declined the dignity on account of his age.
- 918. Henry 1st, the Fowler, son of Otho, duke of Saxony, elected King.
- 936. Otho 1st, the Great, son of Henry, assumed the title of 'Roman Emperor,' and was crowned at Rome in 962. When a successor to the throne was elected during the emperor's life-time, he was called the 'King of Rome.'
- 973. Otho 2nd, the Bloody, so called on account of his cruelty.
- 983. Otho 8rd, the Red, son of Otho 2nd. 1002. Henry 2nd, the Lame, duke of Bavaria.
- 1024. Conrad 2nd, the Salique. Conrad organised the Feudal system, annexed Burgundy to the Em-

- pire, and appointed the river Eider the boundary between A.D. Denmark and Germany.
- 1039. Henry 3rd, the Black, humbled the Roman See by deposing
- three successive popes.

 1056. Henry 4th, son of Henry 3rd, maintained a protracted struggle with pope Gregory 7th, a proud and arrogant pontiff, who encouraged Henry's son and subjects to rebel against him. In this reign the Crusades commenced.
- 1106. Henry 5th, son of Henry 4th, who had been a rebel against his father, and was, in other respects, a man of bad character, married Matilda, daughter of Henry 1st of England. In his reign the great vassals became entirely independent, and thus established the division of Germany into many petty states, the great source of discord and weakness.
 - 1125. Lothaire 2nd, the Saxon, elected through the influence of the Pope.

The House of Hohenstaufen or of Swabia.

1138, Conrad 3rd, duke of Franconia.

- 1152. Frederick 1st, Barbarossa, nephew of Conrad 3rd, was a prince of great ability, and effectually exercised his sovereignty over the see of Rome. In his reign Poland was made tributary, and the Hanseatic League established.
- 1190. Henry 6th, surnamed Asper, the Sharp, was son of the pre-ceding. This emperor detained in his dominions Richard 1st
- of England. 1198, Philip, brother of Henry, was assassinated at Bamburg.
- 1208. Otho 4th, the Superb, was excommunicated and deposed by the Pope
- 1215. Frederick 2nd, king of Sicily, and son of Henry 6th, is said to have been a man of learning, wisdom, and resolution. He was five times excommunicated by three popes, but ultimately succeeded in deposing Gregory

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9th. These contests gave rise | A.D. A.D. to two factions—the Guelphs, or adherents of the Pope, and the Ghibelines, or adherents of the Emperor.

1250. Conrad 4th, son of Frederick 2nd, was the last of the Hohenstaufen family, and died in 1256.

1256-1273. Interregnum. At Conrad's death great confusion prevailed for several years. The great officers of the Imperial Household claimed the right of electing the Emperor to the exclusion of the princes and great towns. This claim was arbitrarily confirmed to them by a bull from Pope Gregory 10th, who then filled the pontifical chair, and assumed the power of confirming any nomination to the imperial throne. Among the claimants to the imperial dignity at this distracted period were William, earl of Holland, Henry of Thuringia, Richard, earl of Cornwall and brother of Henry 3rd of England, and Alphonso, king of Castile. At last, Rudolf, Count of Hapsburg, was elected to the Imperial Dignity in 1278.

LESSON 123,-319. Houses of Hapsburg, Luxemburg, and Bavaria.

1273. Rudolf, Count of Hapsburg.
This able prince destroyed the
strongholds and castles of the nobles, who committed frequent depredations on the ad-

jacent country, and by severe but necessary measures established order in the empire.

1291. Interregnum.

1292. Adolphus, count of Nassau. 1298. Albert lst, son of Rudolf, and duke of Austria.

1306. Henry 7th of Luxemburg. 1313. Interregnum:

1814. Losis 4th of Bavaria and Frederick 3rd of Austria, son of Albert 1st, were rival Emperors. Frederick dying in 1830, Louis was left alone.

1330. Louis 4th reigns alone.

1347. Charles 4th of Luxemburg. In this reign was given at Nuremburg, in 1356, the celebrated Golden Bull which formed the Constitution of the Empire. This regulated the rights, privileges, and duties of the Electors, the formalities of the election and coronation of the Emperor, the coinage, customs. and other articles of Commerce, and the rights and privileges of the free Imperial Cities, &c.

1878. Wenceslas, son of Charles, and king of Bohemia, was twice imprisoned, and forced at last to resign as Emperor, but continued to reign in Bohemia.

1400. Frederick, duke of Brunswick, was assassinated immediately after his election, and thus not generally placed in the list of emperors.

1400. Repert or Robert, Count Palatine 1410. Sigismund, king of Hungary, and in 1419 of Bohemia. In his reign the Council of Constance was held, which condemned John Huss, as a heretic, to be burnt, July 1415.

House of Austria.

1438. Albert 2nd, the Great, duke of Austria, and king of Hungary and Bohemia. 1439. Interregnum.

1440. Frederick 4th of Austria.

1493. Maximilian 1st, son of Frederick 4th, married in 1477 Mary of Burgundy. This able sove-reign put an end to the many abuses which had desolated the empire, improved the organisation of the army and of the courts of justice, introduced a system of police for the secu-rity of the inhabitants, and established the post in 1516. In his reign the Reformation begun by Luther took place. The reformers were bitterly persecuted by the papal party. Maximilian died in 1519.

1519. Charles 5th (1st of Spain), born at Ghent in 1500, son of Philip of Austria and Joanna (only child of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile), and grandson of Maximilian, was elected Emperor in 1519, and crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, Oct. 1520. Charles was Em-Oct. 1520. Charles was Emperor of Germany, Archduke of Austria, King of Spain and its vast possessions in the New World, King of Naples, Sicily and Sardinia, and Sovereign of the Netherlands, then comprising Belgium and Holland. He was thus the most power-•ful monarch of his age.

Charles carried on a long war with Francis 1st of France, on account of their mutual claims to the duchy of Milan. Francis was defeated and taken priA.D. soner at the battle of Pavia near Milan in 1525, but released at the treaty of Madrid in 1526. Shortly after his release, Francis was absolved by Pope Clement 7th from his obligations to the emperor, while Clement himself joined the Italian league against Charles. Upon this the Constable de Bourbon, a rebellious subject of Francis, but at that time the commander of Charles's troops in Italy, being hard pressed to pay his soldiers, suddenly attacked Rome in 1527, which he took and plundered. dered, and made the Pope prisoner. The treaty of Camprisoner. The treaty of Cambray in 1529 restored peace between Charles and Francis. War, however, between the two broke out afresh in 1536, and again in 1542, which ended in 1544. One of the terms of this latter peace was that both sovereigns engaged to destroy Protestantism in their respective dominions. This gave rise to the first Protestant war in Germany, which ended in 1552. Throughout his reign, indeed, Charles was the zealous supporter of the dogmas and ecclesiastical despotism of the Pope, and the unrelenting persecutor of the Protestants.

In Oct. 1555, Charles resigned the crown of Spain and the Indies, along with the sovereignty of the Netherlands, to his son Philip. In Aug. 1556, he resigned the Imperial Dignity to his brother Ferdinand, and then, in Feb. 1557, retired to the monastery of St. Justo near Placencia in Estremadura, Spain, where he died Sept. 21, 1558.

1556. Ferdinand 1st, a mild and equitable sovereign, brother of Charles, granted free toleration to the Protestants.

1564. Maximilian 2nd, son of Ferdinand, was also king of Hungary and Bohemia.

1576. Rudolf 2nd. 1612. Matthias, brother of Rudolf. In his reign the 30 years' war commenced in 1618. This war was begun by the Roman Catholics against the Protes-The Protestants retants. ceived powerful assistance from Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. The war was ter-minated by the treaty of Westphalia, Oct. 1648, when reli-

gious toleration to the Protes-A.D. tants was fully established

1619. Ferdinand 2nd, cousin of Matthias, and son of the Archduke Charles, succeeded. He was a bigoted Roman Catholic, and continued the 30 years' war continued the 30 years' against the Protestants.

1637. Ferdinand 3rd, son of the preceding, continued the 30 years' war till the Treaty of West-phalia put an end to it. This Treaty secured civil and reli-gious liberty to the Protestants, recognised the Sovereignty of the respective States, secularised several bishoprics and abbeys, prohibited any princes from persecuting their subjects on account of religion, and restored to the Count Palatine his States with the dignity of Elector.

1658. Leopold 1st, son of the preceding, was involved in constant wars with France or Turkey. In 1692, he granted the Electoral dignity to the Duke of Brunswick-Luneburg, and in 1701 conferred the title of King on the Elector of Brandenburg, who took from that time the title of King of Prussia. 1705. Joseph 1st, son of Leopold.

1711. Charles 6th, brother of Joseph, died in 1740, leaving only a daughter, Maria Theresa, who had married in 1736 Francis of Lorraine. On the death of her father, Maria solicited the Imperial crown for her husband. After much confusion, how-ever, the Elector of Bayaria was nominated instead in 1742.

1742. Charles 7th, Elector of Bavaria, who had been supported in his candidatureship by France, was raised to the throne. He died Jan. 1745, when Francis, the husband of Maria Theresa, was elected.

1745. Francis 1st of Lorraine, grandduke of Tuscany, and husband of Maria Theresa, succeeded on the death of Charles 7th. In his reign the Seven Years' War was concluded by the treaty of Hubertsburg in 1763, which confirmed the cession of

Silesia to Prussia.

1765. Joseph 2nd, son of the emperor
Francis and Maria Theresa, distinguished himself for several salutary reforms, and for his act of toleration to all religious persuasions proclaimed in 1781. On the death of the elector of Bayaria in 1777, he

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A.D. laid claim to a part of the electorate, but this claim was successfully resisted by the King of Prussis, on the ground of protecting the states in their territorial possessions. The emperor next directed his attention to the revival of the commerce formerly carried on by Antwerp and Ostend, and which contributed in rendering the Austrian Netherlands flourishing and opulent. In this respect his efforts were in a great measure successful.

1790. Leopold 2nd, brother of Joseph, and grand-duke of Tuscany, succeeded as Emperor of Germany and king of Hungary and Bohemia. Though a lover of peace, he was compelled to wage war against the republic of France in defence of his

A.D. sister Maria Antoinette and monarchical principles, Leopold died March 1791.

1792. Francis 2nd, son of Leopold 2nd, succeeded in 1792. Having joined in hostilities against France he soon lost his hereditary states, the Netherlands, with all his territory west of the Rhine, and in 1797 the Austrian possessions in Italy. At the peace of Luneville, in 1801, the Rhine was made the boundary between France and Germany, by which the latter lost more than 26,000 square miles and nearly 4,000,001 in habitants. In 1804 the Emperor resigned the title of Emperor of Germany, and assumed that of hereditary Emperor of Austria, which his successor retains.

THE REVIVED GERMAN EMPIRE UNDER THE HOHENZOLLERN FAMILY.

1871. On January 29, 1871, the German Princes and Parliament conferred on William 1st, King of Prussia, the dignity of 'hereditary Emperor of Germany.'

LESSON 124.-NEW GERMAN EMPIRE.

- **\$20.** Physical.—Modern German, the other the South German Confederation. Both these, since 1871, are under the absolute Military control of the Emperor of Germany. Area, including Alsace and part of Lorraine, but acclusive of the Austrian provinces, comprises 211,761 sq. miles; Pop. in 1867, 40,120,912; Cap. Berlin.
- 321a. Surface.—The Sudetic chain of mountains, commencing with the Westerwald in Westphalia, traversing Hesse-Cassel, the South of Saxony, and terminating in the Carpathians, divides Germany into two well-marked divisions—the Northern and Southern. The former presents many wide saudy plains, swamps, and marshes, raised little above the level of the sea; while the latter contains great ranges of hills, alternating with valleys, and, in some instances, with extensive Plains, among which, that of the Danube appears the most conspicuous. Of the ancient Forests, there still exist considerable remains, the most extensive of which is the Black Forest (the Hercynia Sylva of the Romans) in the Grand Duchy of Baden and W. Wurtemburg. This contains the towns of Neustadt, Hornberg, and several others, the inhabitants of which are employed in rearing live stock, and manufacturing wooden clocks, toys, and woollen fabrics.
- b. Mountains.—Schwarz-Wald, 4,600 ft. in Baden; Steiger-Wald, Rhön-Gebirge, in Bavaria; Thuriuger-Wald, in Saxe-Coburg, &c.; Westerwald, in Prussia; the Hartz Mts., south of Hanover; Erg-Gebirge, between Saxony and Bohemia; the Riesen-Gebirge and Sudetic chain, between Prussia and Bohemia, 5,000 ft.
- c. Rivers.—The principal are the Rhine and Danube; next to these, the Elbe, Oder, Weser, Ems, and Vistula. The chief affluents of the Rhine, are the Neckar, Maine, Lippe, Lahn, and Moselle; of the Danube, are—Inu, Isar, and Lech.
- d. The Lakes are—Constance, Chiem-See (keem-sā), Wurm-See, &c., in the S.; Plau and Mauritz-See, in Mechlenburg-Schwerin.
 - e. The chief Canals are-Plauen, Finow, and Ludwig.
- **\$22a.** Climate.—In the North, the air is moist and variable, and the cold of the long winters so severe that the rivers and lakes are frozen for several months. In the Central districts, the Climate is comparatively mild, dry, and regular. In the South, the winters are generally short and mild; summer sets in early, and, during this season, the heat in the valleys is often excessive. On the whole, the Climate of Germany is healthy.
 - Mean Ann. Temp. of Munich, 45°; Dresden, 49°; Weimar, 51°; Hamburg, 46°. Mean Winter of Munich, 30°; Dresden, 33°; Weimar, 37°; Hamburg, 33°. Mean Summer of Munich, 61°; Dresden, 66°; Weimar, 63°; Hamburg, 64°.
- c. Bainfull.—The quantity of Rain which falls annually varies greatly with the bosalities of places. At Wittenburg it is 18 inches, at Berlin 21 inches, and at Ulm 26 inches.

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323a. Soil, &c.—In the North-East there are many tracts of low sandy soil; and in the North-West considerable swamps and marshes. In these divisions, the Soil, except in Saxony, is in general poor, but capable of great improvement; in the Southern districts, the land is superior, and in many places extremely fertile.

b. The Minerals are of the useful kind and abundant; comprising iron, tin, lead, salt, coal, mercury, and building stone; with some gold in Silesia, &c., and silver in the Hartz Mts., in Hanover and the Erz-Gebrige in Saxon, Mining is one of the sources of wealth in which Germany may be said to surpass every other country in Europe; it has been formed into a regular science, and brought to a high state of perfection.

c. Of Wild Animals may be enumerated—the wild boar, wolf, fox, deer, lynx, and the glutton.

LESSON 125.—324a. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—By the Treaty of Prague, signed August 23, 1866, which terminated the war between Austria and Prussia, the former was entirely excluded from modern Germany, while the political relations of the other States were completely changed. The States are now ranged under two groups, of North Germany and South Germany. North Germany embraces the country North of the Maine, and consists of 22 States, united in a Federative Empire by a Constitutional Charter, under the absolute control of Prussia. South Germany embraces the countries South of the Maine, and consists of 5 States, of which the principal is Bavaria. Since the recent Franco-German war of 1870-71, both the above divisions are bound together by a permanent bond of alliance, both offensive and defensive, under the direct Military Control of the King of Prussia, who is now the Hereditary Emperor of Germany.

b. The North German Confederation embraces the following 22 States :-

States.											Pop. in 1867.
1. a. f Prpssis .								•		136,734	24,048,902
b. l Alsace, Lor	raine.	&c.								5,513	1,638,546
2. Saxony .										6.777	2,423,586
3. Mecklenburg-8	ch weri	n				:				4,834	560,618
4. Mecklenburg-8	trelitz							•		997	98,770
5. Oldenburg .										2,417	315,622
6. Brunswick										1,526	302,795
7. Saxe-Weimar				:		:				1,421	283,044
8. Saxe-Meininge	n .			-	:	:				938	180,33
9. Saxe-Coburg-G	otha									816	168.73
10. Saxe-Altenbur				- :		-	-			509	141,420
11. Anhalt						:				869	197,04
12. Waldeck				- 5	Ĭ				-	466	56,809
18. Lippe Detinold		•		•	·	•		:	•	445	111,85
14. Lippe-Schaum	hure			-		:		-	•	212	31,186
16. Schwarzburg-f	tudolet	adt	:	•	•	•	•	•	•	840	75,074
16. Schwarzhurg-S	londers	hau	nen.	:	•	:	:	•	•	818	67,454
17. Reuss-Schleiz.				•	•	•	•	-	•	297	88,097
18. Reuss-Greis		•	-	. :	•	•	•	•	•	148	43.889
19. Hamburg	• •	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	148	305,196
20. Lubec		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	127	48.53
21. Bremen	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	106	109,57:
22. Upper Hesse-D	armet	dt	•	•	•	•	•	:	•	1.865	257,479
			٠,		. á.	: <i>.</i>	Jouf.	•	•	167,323	81,549,063

c. The South German Confederation comprises the following 5 States :-

States,												Pop. in 1867.
1. Bavaria .		•	,		,	_			•	•	29,347	4,824,421
2. Wurtemburg											7,675	1,778,479
3. Baden .											5,851	1,484,970
4. Lower Hesse-	Dar	mst	ıdt	•		•					1,501	525,659
5. Lichtenstein	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	64	8,320
Total of S. Germany									44,438	8,571,849		
			Total	of 1	N. Gt	rma	ny				167,323	81,549,068
			Gran	d To	tal c	f Ge	rmar	ıy			211,761	40,120,912

LESSON 126.—**325**a. Industrial Pursuits.—Agriculture, §c.—Agriculture in its various branches employs nearly three-fourths of the German population.

b. The chief Products comprise rye (which is the most extensively used for food), wheat, cats, barley, peas, beans, buckwheat, potatoes, fiax, madder, tobacco, hops, chicory, beet-root for sugar, and orchard fruits. The Vine is extensively cultivated in the Rhine district, and in Middle and Southern Germany. c. Cattle, sheep, and swine are extensively reared. The sheep of Silesia and the swine of Pomerania and Westphalia are famous. Hams and become are largely exported from Westphalia.

326a. Manufactures, &c. — Manufactures have, of late, considerably increased. The woollen manufacture is very flourishing. Cotton, silk, linen, and leather, employ great numbers of people. Earthenware has been carried to great perfection. The porcelain of Mcissen and Berlin is much admired. The German mechanics are in general very skilful; in cutlery, perhaps, they equal the English. Among the minor articles of manufacture may be mentioned sugarrefining, wax, oil, musical and mathematical instruments, clocks, watches, and wood-work toys.

- b. Commerce.—Formerly the trade of Germany was greatly trammeled by the different Rates of duties and customs levied by the numerous petty states into which the country is divided. This evil has now been obviated by the institution of the German Commercial Customs' Union, called the ZOLLYEREIN, by which a uniform rate of charges is exacted in transport, import, and export duties and postages, taxes on spirits, wines, sugar made from beet-root, tobacco. mines, foundries, smelting establishments, &c., with also a fixed rate of exchange. This System was originated by Prussia in 1928; and since 1888 all the States both in the North and South Confederations have acceded to its, except Bremen and Hamburg, which for this exemption pay sums in proportion to their trade. In 1867, Bremen paid to the Zollversin 32,8581.; and Hamburg 109,3571.
- c. The *Exports* vary in the different States; but in general they comprise grain, salted provisions, cattle, wool, timber, iron, steel, lead, salt, linen, some woollens, glass, and porcelain. The book trade is very extensive. The *Imports* comprise tea, sugar, coffee, cotton, silks, woollen fabrics, dye-woods, resins, oils, charcoal, dates, herrings, &c. d. The ordinary *Roads* are generally very good. The system of *Railroads* is extensive throughout all the States, but especially in Prussis. The numerous *Rivers* are mostly navigable, and frequented by steam-packets.

327a. Social Condition. — Government. — Each State of the Empire has a Legislative Assembly for the management of its own internal concerns. Besides this, an *Imperial Charter* has been drawn up for the regulation of all the Confederate States which form the German Empire. This declares that the several States are

under the absolute Military Control of the Emperor of Germany, and are allied offensively and defensively for the independence and integrity of each. The Legislative Power of the Confederation is exercised by an Imperial Parliament, consisting of two chambers, a Federal Council, and a House of Representatives, assembling every year at Berlin, under the presidency of the Emperor of Germany. The Federal Council, representing the confederated States, consists of 43 members; of whom 17 represent Prussia, 4 Saxony, 2 Mechlenburg-Schwerin, 2 Brunswick, and 1 each of the remaining states. The House of Representatives (or Reichstag) is elected by universal suffrage for three years, at the rate of one member for every 100,000 of the inhabitants. The individual members have freedom of speech and of person, and cannot be prosecuted for speeches delivered in the discharge of their mandate.

- b. Personal Freedom is, in Germany, very greatly restricted by commercial, political, and military regulations, which to an Englishman would be intolerable. Military Service, under Prussian control, is now required of all male adults in every State; from this and other causes many Germans annually emigrate to other countries.
- 228. Religion.—In Germany, the Reformation sprung up under Luther, when the most formidable conflicts were carried on between the partisans of the old and the new systems. In other countries, one or other of these finally prevailed; but in Germany they settled into a pretty equal division of the country. The Lutherans and Calvinists prevail in the Northern States, and the Roman Catholics in the Southern. The Religion of every creed is tolerated. Christianity has in many places, unfortunately, degenerated into mere rationalism (that is, a system of opinions deduced from reason alone, as distinct from, or opposed to, revelation). An improvement, however, in this respect has taken place within the last few years in several districts. Though attendance on Divine Worship is pretty general in the morning of the Sabbath, yet the remainder of the day is lamentably descarated.
- 329a. Education.—Nearly all the German States have adopted the Prussian System of Education, by which attendance at school is compulsory for all children till the age of 12 or 14. Elementary schools are, therefore, established in every parish. In addition to these, Lycča or Academies of a superior grade are numerous. In no country, indeed, has intellectual education been more the object of study among clever men than in Germany. But religious and moral training, it must be observed, are very imperfectly developed by the German system.
- b. The Universities are numerous and distinguished; of which five are Roman Catholic, thirteen Protestant, and two mixed. In these, as in the Scotch Universities, instruction is given entirely by lectures; the students live in the towns, and are not subject even to any compulsory attendance on the lectures. From want of proper and wholesome discipline, therefore, many of the students are very disorderly in their private conduct.
- c. In Literature and Science, Germany has been particularly distinguished. "Her writers," says Mr. Macuilloch, "exhibit that character of hard mechanical labour which distinguishes her workmen in other departments. In editing and illustrating the classics, in verbal criticism, and in statistical researches, no nation can compete with them. They have also produced many distinguished men in Abstract Science, in Medicine, and Mineralogy, and especially in Music

and Painting. But the Germans are notoriously deficient in practical application both in religious and political subjects; and are too fond of indulging in dreamy, useless, and mystical speculations." (Macculloch's Geo. Dict.)

330a. Races, &c.—With the exception of Posen and Silesia in Prussia, the inhabitants of which are of Sciavonic origin, all the rest of Germany is occupied by people of Teutonic descent. b. The German Language, in one or other of its various dialects, is spoken throughout Germany. It is divided into two great branches or leading Dialects (which are subdivided into various subordinate dialects), the High and the Low German or Saxon, the first of which is the chief vritten language. The High German is spoken chiefly in Southern Germany, and the Low German in the Northern parts of the country. c. The number of persons per square mile is about 189. Emigration, however, which has been largely carried on since 1866, will tend materially to diminish the number. d. People, Manners, &c.—The Nobles and higher orders of Germany are represented as being ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and show. The character of the body of the German people has many estimable features. They are, perhaps, the hardest working nation in Europe; slow and persevering, and, through these qualities, have always been esteemed the most valuable colonists in newly settled districts. Their habits are simple and domestic; and honesty is said to mark their general transactions. In amusement, they are extremely fond of music, dancing, and theatrical exhibitions.

STATES OF THE NORTH GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

LESSON 127.—331. PRUSSIA, as before stated, is the dominant Power, not only in the North Confederation but in the Empire, and its Sovereign is *Hereditary Emperor of Germany*. (See *Prussia*, Lessons 114 to 118.)

332a. THE KINGDOM OF SAXONY, the principal of the Secondary States, has an Area of 6,779 sq. miles; Pop. in 1867, 2,423,586; Cap. DRESDEM. The Country is divided into 4 Circles.

b. The Surface in the Sonth is partly mountainous; the average elevation is about 1,100 ft. above the level of the Sea. The Mountains are the Krs-Gebirge and Riesen-Gebirge in the South and South-Rest. The Riesers are the Ribe, Mulde, and Saale. The Climate of the Plains is mild and salubrious, but in the Sonth the winter is severe. c. The Soil is fertile in grain and cultivated with care. The Products are rye, wheat, barley, oats, and potatoes. Fruit is extensively cultivated. Of Domestic Animals, the Merino sheep are numerous, supplying valuable wool, most of which is exported to England. The cattle are of a superior kind. Minerals are abundant, particularly iron, lead, copper, silver, cobait, coal, and antimony. Mining employs a great proportion of the people. The Manufactures are important, the chief of which are cottons, woollens, linens, stockings, and the fine porcelain of Meissen, called Dresden China. The Commerce is extensive, especially in books and manufactured goods, sold mostly at the annual Fair at Leipsic.

d. The Government is an hereditary limited Monarchy, having a Senate or Upper House, and a house of Representatives, appointed by Electors being above 25 years of age and paying taxes. The Religion of 97 per cent. of the people is Lutheranism. The reigning family, however, are Roman Catholies, having changed their religion in 1697 to obtain the crown of Poland. Public Education receives much attention. Literature and the Fine Arts have flourished more in Saxony thair in any other part of Germany. The University of Leipsic is one of the most distinguished in Germany.

e. The Chief Towns in Saxony are :-

Dreaden, the cap., p. 146.
Chem.nitz (kem), cuttons, hosiery, p. 54.
Slau-chau, frou, ciott, paper, p. 19.
Plau-en, linen, cotton, p. 18.

f History.—The Kings of Saxony are descended from the Albertine, or younger branch of the Saxon Princely Family. Saxony was created an

Electorate in 1422, which title it retained till 1806, when Napoleon 1st crected it into a Kingdom and extended its territory. At the Congress of Vienna in 1816, the additions bestowed by Napoleon were taken away, and given, partly to Prussia and partly to Russia. In 1866, the country was over-run by Prussia; but, after some negotiations, was in some measure restored to its former rank, though subordinate to Prussian Military Control.

- 333a. MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN, since 1815, a Grand Duchy. The Area is 4,834 sq. miles; Pop. 560,618; Cap. SCHWERIN.
- b. The Climate is moist; the Soil is moderately fertile; pasturage is excellent; cattle are extensively reared. The Manufactures are inconsiderable. The inhabitants are of Vandal and Sclavonic origin; and of the Lutheran Religion, except a few Roman Catholics. The Government is of a Faudal kind, with a permanent Diet. The great bulk of the population is without any political rights. The income of the Grand Duke is derived solely from State Domains, and amounts to 120,000, per ann. History.—The House of Mechlenburg is the oldest of the reigning families in Europe. In 1701, Mechlenburg-Strelitz was separated from Schwerin, and assigned to a younger son of the reigning Duke.
- 334. MECKLENBURG-STRELITZ, a Grand Duchy, consists of two detached portions: 1. The Duchy of Strelitz; 2. The Principality of Ratzeburg. The Area of the two is 997 sq. miles; Pop. 98,770; Cap. New Streelitz. The Revenue of the Grand Ducal family is about 230,000l. per annum.
- 335a. OLDENBURG, a Grand Duchy, on the North, is composed of four detached portions, the largest of which is nearly surrounded by Hanover. Area, 2,417 sq. miles; Pop. 315,622; Cap. OLDENBURG.
- b. The Surface is in general flat; the Climate is moist; the Soil in some parts is pretty fertile, in others sandy. Corn is deficient, but pasturage is excellent, and cattle are extensively reared. The Manufactures are confined to coarse linen and woollen goods. The Government is constitutional. The Revenue of the Grand Duke is about 25,5001, per ann. History.—The House of Oldenburg (which is said to be descended from Wittekind, the leader of the heathen Saxons against Charlemagne) has given sovereigns to Denmark, Sweden, and Russia.
- 336a. Brunswick, a Duchy, is composed of six detached portions. Area, 1,526 sq. miles; Pop. 302,792; Cap. Brunswick.
- b. The country is mountainous and poorly watered; the Climate is rather rigorous. Agriculture, cattle rearing, and mining are the chief cocupations. The Government is constitutional. Education receives considerable attention. In Religion nearly all the people are Lutherans. The reigning Duke is one of the wealthlest of German sovereigns. Gottingen is the university. History.—The family name of the reigning Duke is Guelph, and is one of the most ancient in Germany. The Duke is descended from Henry, surnamed the Lion, who, in 1189, held Brunswick, Bavaria, and Saxony, but, on his refusal to assist the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa against Pope Alexander 3rd, was deprived of Bavaria and Saxony. The English Royal Family of Hanover is a younger branch of the house of Brunswick.
- **LESSON 128.—337a.** SAXE-WEIMAR, a *Grand Duchy*, consisting of three principal portions and about 24 small ones, all of which are detached. *Area* of the whole, 1,421 sq. miles; *Pop.* 283,044; *Cap.* WEIMAR.
- b. Nine-tenths of the inhabitants are Protestants, and are intelligent and industrious. The Government is constitutional.

- c. Chief Towns are—Weimar, the cap., celebrated for its literary and scientific institutions, p. 14. Risenach has a mint and extensive manufac, p. 12. Jena is the seat of a university, p. 6. Here, on Oct. 14, 1806, Napoleum 1st totally defeated the Prussians under their king and the Duke of Brunswick. The latter fell in the action. Warthurg, a castle near kisenach, where Lather was concealed for ten months in 1821.
- d. The family of the Grand Duke stands at the head of the Ernestine or elder line of the princely houses of Saxony, which includes the sovereigns of Weimar, Meiningen, Altenburg, and Obsery-Gotha. The Royal family of Sazony are descended from the Albertine or younger branch.
- 338a. SAKE-MEININGEN, a small Duchy, consisting, as usual, of several detached portions. Area of the whole, 933 sq. miles; Pop. 180,335; Cap. MEININGEN, p. 7.
- b. This duchy was only one-third of its present size till 1826, when, by the extinction of the ancient family of Saxe-Gotha, an additional territory fell to the reigning Duke.
- 339a. Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, a small Duchy, composed of two principal and several smaller detached portions. *Area* of Coburg, 230 sq. miles; of Gotha, 586 sq. miles; of the whole, 816 sq. miles; *Pop.* 168,735; *Caps.* Gotha, 17; Coburg, 10.
- b. The Religion of the people is Lutheran. Education is in an advanced state. The Government is a constitutional monarchy. The Legislative power is vested in two separate assemblies; one for the prov. of Coburg with 11 members, and another for that of Gotha with 19 members. By the extinction of the line of Saux-Gotha in 1826, the house of Saux-Coburg received an accession of territory, and altered its name to that of Saux-Coburg-Gotha. The late Prince Consort was brother to the reigning Duke; the heir-apparent is our Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh.
- **340.** SAXE-ALTENBURG, a small Duchy, consisting of several detached portions. *Area* of the whole, 509 sq. m.; *Pop.* 141,426; *Cap.* ALTENBURG, p. 17.
- 341a. ANHALT. In 1815, Anhalt consisted of three small Duchies; namely, Anhalt-Cothen, Anhalt-Bernburg, and Anhalt-Dessau. Of these the family of Anhalt-Cothen became extinct in 1847; that of Anhalt-Bernburg, in 1863; leaving the Duke of Anhalt-Dessau the sole possessor of the united Duchies. Area of the three Duchies, 869 sq. miles; Pop. 197,041; Cap. Dessau, p. 16.
- b. The Duke's Civil List is 29,000L, besides this, he has large private estates in Prussia, Saxony, &c. The Anhalt family is descended from Bernhard, son of Albert, the Bear, Margrave of Brandenburg, who died in 1211 a.b.
- 342. WALDECK is a small principality, consisting of two portions: 1. Waideck Proper, having an Area of 440 sq. miles; and 2. Waldeck Pyrmont, containing 26 sq. miles. The united Area is 466 sq. miles; Pop. 56,809; Cap. Arolsen, p. 2. The Prince, in 1867, surrendered his sovereign rights to the King of Prussia.
- 343a. Lippe-Dethold is a small principality in the N.-W. of Germany. Area, 445 sq. miles; Pop. 111,352; Cap. Dethold, p. 6. The late Prince sold part of his territory in 1850 to Prussia.
- b. Lippe-Schaumburg is another small principality. Area, 212 sq. miles; Pap. 31,186; Cap. Buckeburg, p. 4.

- 344a. SCHWARZEURG-SONDERSHAUSEN, a small principality under the elder branch of the reigning family. Area, 318 sq. miles; Pop. 67.454; Cap. SONDERSHAUSEN, p. 5.
- b. Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, a small principality, under the younger branch of the reigning family. Area, 340 sq. miles; Pop. 75,074; Cap. Rudolstadt, p. 6.
- 345a. REUSS-GREIZ is a small principality, belonging to the elder branch of the Reuss family, which traces its descent from the Emperor Henry 1st, the Fowler, who died in 936 A.D. Area, 148 sq. miles; Pop. 43,889; Cap. Grentz, p. 11. The greater part of the territory is the private property of the Prince.
- b. Reuss-Schleiz is another small principality, belonging to the younger branch of the Reuss family. Area, 297 sq. miles; Pop. 88,097; Cap. Gera, p. 15. Here, also, the greater part of the territory is the private property of the Prince.
- 346a. HAMBURG, one of the *Hanse-towns*, is the largest of the Free Cities, with considerable foreign and domestic trade. The *Area* of the territory is 148 sq. miles; *Pop.* in 1867, 306,507; of the city alone, 189,145.
- b. The Government is entrusted to two chambers: 1. The Senate, of 18 members, elected for life, which exercises the chief executive power, and is memberd over by the Buryonater; 2. The House of Buryona, consisting of 192 members, elected by the votes of all tax-paying citizens for 6 years. For the privilege of exemption from the Zollverin, Hamburg pays an annual tax proportionate to its trade. In 1867, it paid 109,3571.
- 347a. LUBECK, one of the *Hanse-towns*, and a Free City, with considerable trade, possesses several small detached portions of territory. *Area*, 127 sq. miles; *Pop.* 48,538; of the city alone, 36,353.
- b. The Government consists of—1. A Senate, of 14 members, which exercises the Executive Power; and 2. A House of Burgesses, of 120 members, which exercises the Legislative authority.
- **348**a. Bremen, a Hanse-town, and one of the remaining Free Cities, has a small district surrounding it. Area, 106 sq. miles; Pop. 109,572; of the city alone, 74,945.
- b. The city and territory are governed by a Senate of 30 members acting under the Legislative authority of the General Assembly of citizens. The privilege of exemption from the Zollvereis is purchased by a variable annual payment to the North German Confed. In 1867, the payment was 32,8581. In 1827, a district at the mouth of the Weser was bought by Bremen from Hanover, on which was built in 1830 the port of Bremenhafen, which now owns 300 ships. In 1865, 44,600 emigrants left this port.

STATES OF THE SOUTH GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

LESSON 129.—349a. Kingdom of Bavaria. — Bavaria, the most important of the Southern States, consists of two detached portions: 1. Bavaria Proper, which lies on the East of Wurtemburg; and 2. Rhonish Bavaria, the smaller portion, which lies on

the West of the Rhine. Area of the two portions, 29,347 sq. miles; Pop. in 1867, 4,824,421; Cap. Munich, p. 170.

- b. Surface.—The country is in general elevated and mountainous. The chief Rivers are the Danube, Rhine, Marne, and Elbe. The Mountains are the Alps on the S., the Bohmer-Wald on the E., and the Rhön-Gebirge on the N. The Lakes are Constance, Ammer-See, Wurm-See, and Chiem-See.
- c. The Climate is temperate and healthy, though, from its general elevation, colder than some countries more to the North. The Soil is in general fertile and the pasturage excellent. The principal Minerals are sait, coal. Iron, marble, alabaster, porcelain olsy, copper, &c. Agricultural Product forms the chief wealth of the country. d. Manufactures are not much developed. Beer forms an important article in part may be marking linear statement. weath of the country. a. Manufactures are not much developed. Heer forms an important article; next, may be mentioned linens, woollens, cottons, tanning, paper-making, jewellery, wooden clocks, mathematical instruments, &c. The Exports consist of grain, timber, wine, cattle, salt, hides, wool, fruits, and jewellery. The Imports comprise cotton, sugar, coffee, and other colonial products, with silks and woollen fabrics.
 - e. The Political Divisions comprise 8 Provinces (Pop of the Towns in thousands) :-

Provs.	Chief Towns.	Provs.	Chief Towns.
1. Upper Bavaria	Munich, 170. Ingoldstadt, 19.	5. Upper Franconia	Bamburg, 25. Bayreuth, 19.
2. Lower Bayaria 3. Upper Palatinate	. Ривени, 13.	6. Middle Franconia	Nuremburg, 70. Furth, 21.
4. Lower Palatinate	Spires, 13. Deux Ponts, 2.	7. Lower Franconia	Wursburg, 41.

f. The Government since 1818 is a constitutional Monarchy, hereditary in the male line. The Legislative power consists of the King and two chambers; an Upper, nominated by the King, and a Lower of 123 members, elected, one deputy for every 7,000 families. g. The Religion of the court and state is Roman Catholic, but the constitution guarantees toleration to all classes. The Roman Catholics form the majority of the population. h. Education has of late years considerably extended. The system pursued is similar to that of Prussia. There are three Universities, those of Munich and Wurzburg are Roman Catholic; that of Eriangen is Protestant.

i, Chief Towns and most noted places in Bavaria:-

Ans'-pach, once the cap, of a small principality, p. 12.

Augs-burg, once a free city, has now much trade; here, the Protestants in 1530, presented to Charles 5th their Confession of Faith, p. 49. Bay-reuth, once the cap. of a principality,

p. 19. Bam-burg, with several literary institu-

tions, p. 25.
Blen-heim (htms), a vil. cel. for a vict, by
Marlborough over the French and Bavarians, Aug. 2, 1704.

MUNIOH (mik), cap, seat of a univ., p. 170. Nu-rem-burg, once a free city, cel. for manf. of clorks, watches, &c., bpl. of Albert Durer, the cel. painter, p. 70. Rat'ishon, the seat of the Imperial Diet from 1685 to 1806, p. 30. Spires; at the Diet held here in 1839, the

Reformers entered that Protest against the proceedings of the emperor and the Romish party, which gave them the name of Protestants, p. 18.

Wurz-burg, seat of a university, once the cap. of Franconia, p. 41.

- j. HEFORY.—Modern Bavaria formed part of ancient Noricum and Vindelicia.

 The present Royal Family are descended, by the female line, from Otho, count of Wittelsbach, who was made duke of Bavaria by the Emperor Frederick 1st, Barbarossa, in 1180. Duke Maximilian, the Great, became the first Elector in 1623. The elector, Maximilian Joseph 2nd, was made King by Napoleon 1st in 1805, with an accession of territory. On his deserting Napoleon in 1813 and joining the allies, his title and accessions of territory were confirmed to him at the congress of Vienna in 1815. The Tyrol and other districts, however, were restored to their former masters.
- 350a. Kingdom of Wurtemburg.—Wurtemburg lies to the West of Bavaria. Area, 7,675 sq. miles; Pop. in 1867, 1,778,479; Cap. STUTTGART, p. 75.
- b. The Surface is elevated and mountainous, except in the South. The Mountains comprise portions of the Alpa. The Rivers are the Danube and x 3

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Neckar. Lake—Constance. The Climate, though variable, is temperate and healthy. The Soil is very fertile in the valleys. The chief Minerals are iron, coal, lead, and copper.

c. The Country is divided into 4 Circles :-

Circles.
1. Neckar . . . STOTTGABT, 70; Heilbrunn, 16. 2. Black Forest Reutlingen, 13; Tubingen, 8. 4. Jast . Chief T. wns. Hall. 7.

- d. Agriculture forms the principal occupation of the mass of the population. The rearing of horses, catie, and sheep, is an important branch of industry. The Manyactures are chiefly domestic and unimportant.
- e. The Government is a constitutional Monarchy, with a Diet or Landtag of 2 chambers. In Religion, the great majority of the people are of the Evangelori Church formed in 1823, by the union of the Lutherans and Reformers. About one-third only are Roman Catholics. All religions are tolerated. The Royal Family are Protestants. Education is compulsory from 6 to 14, and is widely diffused. Tubingen is a Protestant University.

f The chief Towns are :--

Heil-brünn (Mie), extensive manfa, p. | Tu'-bing-en, a Prot. Univers. where Me STUTT-GART, the cap., p. 70. Reut-ling-en (roit'-ling-n), p. 13.

lanction was once a professor, p. 8. Ulm; here Gen. Mack disgracefully sur-rendered to the French in 1805, p. 24.

- g. Histony.—Wurtemburg, originally a part of Swabia, was made a county for Ulric 1st, about 1265 and a duchy in 1496. Frederick 2nd was made at Elector in 1803; and in 1805, received from Napoleon 1st the title of King Frederick 1st, with an accession of territory. On Napoleon's invasion of Russia in 1812, Frederick supplied a contingent; but in 1813, he joined the allies against Napoleon's Line 1816. With the condense of the condense of the little 1816 of the condense of the condense of the little 1816 of the Napoleon. His title and accessions were confirmed to him in 1815. His son, William 1st, abolished Serfdom in 1818, and instituted a representative Government in 1819.
- 351a. GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN lies to the West of Wurtemburg. Arca. 5.851 sq. miles; Pop. 1.484.970; Cap. CARLSRUHE. p. 30.
- b. The Surface is exceedingly varied; the East part is mountainous; the West is undulating; on the banks of the Rhine it is mostly level. The Mountains are the Black Forest or Schwarz-Wald. The Rivers are the Rhine, Neckar, and Danube. Lake-Constance.
- c. The Climate in the mountainous parts is frequently severe; but, in the districts along the Rhiue and the Neckar it is mild and genial. The Soil is in general fertile; pasturage is abundant. The Minerals are salt, alum, sulphur, coal, iron, copper, and lead. Agriculture forms the chief wealth of the State. Much attention is paid to sheep and cattle rearing. The Manufactures comprise cottons, ribbons, wooden ornaments, clocks, and watches.
- d. Divisions.—In 1864, Baden was divided into 11 Circles, named from the chief towns
- e. The Government is under a Grand Duke with two Chambers, the Upper of c. The tovernment is under a Grand Duke with two Chambers, the Upper of the Nobility, and the Lower of Deputies. The Religion of more than half the people is Roman Catholic, but all sects are tolerated. The reigning family are Protestants. In Bducation, the Prussian system of instruction is adopted. Riementary schools are in every town and village. There are two Universities: one Protestant at Heideburg; the other Roman Catholic at Freyburg.

f. The chief Towns are:-

Baden-Baden, cel. for its min, waters, p. 6. Constance, cel. for a Council held here from 1414 to 1418, in which the tenets of Wickliffs and Huss were condemned. This town was annexed to Baden in 1805, p. f.

CARLS-RUHE, the cap., p. 30.
Fref-burg, seat of a university, p. 19.
Hel del-burg (hi), seat of a Prot. University, p. 17.

Mann-heim (hime), extens. manf. of shawis, linens, &c., p. 30.

g. History.—Baden, part of Sxabia during the middle ages, was till 1806 a Margraviate; it was then made by Napoleon lat a Grand Duchy with an accession of territory.

352a. Hesse-Darmstadt, a Grand Duchy, consists of three provinces: 1. Upper Hesse, lying North of the Maine; 2. Rhenish Hesse; and 3. Starkenburg, lying South of the Maine. Upper Hesse forms a part of the North German Confederation, and is only partially under the Grand Duke; its Area is 1,365 sq. miles; Pop. in 1867, 257,479. The other provinces, Rhenish Hesse and Starkenburg, have an Area of 1,501 sq. miles; Pop. 525,659. Total Area, 2,866 sq. miles; total Pop. 823,138; Cap. Darmstadt, p. 30.

b. At the treaty of Berlin in Sept. 1866, Hesse-Darmstadt ceded to Prussia Hesse-Hombury and the Northern part of Upper Hesse, having an Area of 423 sq. miles, and Pop. of 75,102.

c. The Surface in the North is mountainous; the other portions of Hesse lie in the basins of the Rhine and the Weser. The chief Rivers are the Rhine (with its affinents—Neckar, Maine, and Iahn), and Fulda and Schwalm, affinents of the Weser. The Climate is healthy. The Soil is fertile. The Minerals comprise copper, iron, coal, potter's clay, and salt. Agriculture and cattle rearing employ most of the inhabitants. The Manyactures comprise leather, woollean, and linens. The Religion of the great majority is Protestantism. Education is widely extended. The University is Giessen, in which Baron Liebig, the celebrated chemist, has long been a professor.

d. The chief Towns are :-

DARMSTADT, the cap., manf. of paper, carpets, &c., p. 30. Glessen, seat of a univers., manf. of woollens, leather, p. 9. Msinz, or Mayence, a strong city, with a college, museum, manf. of leather, soap.

tohacco, and a great mart, p. 42.
Offenbach, manf. of pocket-books, purses, ornaments, p. 19.
Worms, once an imperial city, frequently the seat of imperial Diets; here, Luther in 1831 was excommunicated, p. 1h

e. HISTORY.—Hesse was the seat of the ancient Catri. It was joined to Thuringia till 1263, when it was made a Landgraviate. In 1866, Hesse-Darmstadt was made a Grand Duchy. In 1862, Ladwig, nephew of the reigning Duke, married Princess Alice, daughter of Queen Victoria of England.

353a. LICHTENSTEIN, the smallest of the petty principalities, lying near Lake Constance; Area, 64 sq. miles; Pop. 8,320; Cap. VADUTE, p. 1.

b. The Prince of Lichtenstein is said to be descended from the Longobard Marquis d'Este, from whom sise the Royal Family of England is descended. His private estates in Moravia and Bohemia comprise an area of 2,200 sq. m., with a pop. of 350,000 inhabs., and yield a revenue of 550,000 per annum.

354. HOHENZOLLERN (Heckingen and Sigmaringen), formerly two separate principalities till 1849, when the two Princes abdicated in favour of the King of Prussia, the head of the Hohenzollern family. They now form a province of Prussia. The united Area is 451 sq. miles; Pop. 64,958.

LESSON 130 .- SWITZERLAND.

- 355a. Physical. Switzerland is in Length 223 miles; Breadth, 75 to 140 miles. Area, 15,233 sq. miles; Pop. 2,510,494; Cap. Berne.
- b. Switzerland being an inland country, has neither Islands nor Capes; nor has it any foreign possessions.
- 386a. Surface.—Switzerland is the most mountainous country in Europe. It is naturally divided into 4 regions—the Alps, the Plain, the Hilly country, and the Jura district. The Alps occupy the Central, the South, and the South-East portions of the country. The Jura Mts. extend along the N.-W. borders. Between these there is an undulating Plain, 135 miles in length by 50 miles in extreme breadth. The mountains form vast reservoirs, whence issue numerous fertilising streams.
- b. The chief Mountain ranges are—the Alps on the S. and S.-East, and the Jura on the N.-W. The most noted peaks are—Mt. Rosa (15,150 ft.), Simplon (sahm-plong, 11,500 ft.), Mt. Cervin or Matterhorn (14,836 ft.), St. Gothard, Great St. Bernard, and Mont Blanc (mong-blaung).
- c. Among the Alps are vast fields of ice, called *Glaciers*, formed by the partial melting of snow in summer, which is again frozen at the approach of winter. Avalanches, also, or vast masses of snow descending from the mountains, are common among the Alps. These sometimes overwhelm whole villages.
- d. The chief Passes across the Alps are those of Mt. Cenis, 6,800 ft., above the sea; Little St. Bernard, 7,200 ft.; Great St. Bernard, 7,600 ft.; Simplon, 6,600 ft.; St. Gotlard, 6,800 ft.; Stelvin, 9,200 ft.—A Tunnel under Mt. Cenis has now(Sept. 1871) been completed, which connects France with Italy.
- e. The Rivers are—the Rhine, Rhone, Thur (toor), Aar, Reuss (ruce), Ticino (te-chee-no), and Inn.
- f. The Lakes are numerous, of which the principal are—Constance (Ar. 183 sq. m.), Genêva (Ar. 233 sq. m.), Lucerne (Ar. 42 sq. m.), Zurich (Ar. 34 sq. m.), Neufchâtel (Ar. 92 sq. m.), Brienz (Ar. 10 sq. m.), Lugãno (Ar. 19 sq. m.), and Maggiore (mad-jō-ra, Ar. 152 sq. m.). Steam packets regularly ply on several of the lakes.
- 357a. Climate.—The Climate, owing to the elevation of the country and to other causes, presents the greatest extremes and the most violent contrasts. At an elevation of from 1,000 to 1,600 ft. the Climate is pure and salubrious, but in the deep and narrow valleys it is unhealthy. In these places, the Goître, or swollen neck, is very common among the inhabitants. In the higher regions, the cold is often severe.
 - b. The mean Temp. of Winter at Geneva is 33°; at Berne, 29°; at Zurich, 80c. The mean of Summer at Geneva is 66°; at Berne, 59°; at Zurich, 64°.
- α . The annual amount of Bainfall in the S. is about 57 inches, on the W. about 47 inches, in the N. about 36 inches.
 - 358a. Soil, &c. The Soil is very various. Some cantons, as

Berne, Thurgau, &c., are fertile; while others, as Appenzell, &c., are naturally barren.

- b. The chief Minerals are lead, zinc, copper, and some inferior coal. Mineral Springs are numerous, of which the most noted are those in the canton of Berne; the baths of Pfaffers in St. Gall; and those of Baden in Aargau.
- c. Among Wild Animals, may be mentioned the ibex or rock-goat, the chamois, a species of antelope, and the marmot. Wolves and foxes are common among the Alps.
- 359. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Since 1815, Switzerland has been divided into 22 Cantons, of which the Names, Area, Pop., number of Representatives of each in the Federal Council, and the Chief Towns are subjoined (the pop. of the Towns in thousands):—

Cantons.	Area in Sq. M.	Pop.	Repre-	Chief Towns.
1, Northern:-				
1, Basie (bdhl)	184	93,265	5	Busic, p. 38.
2 Soleuro	254	69,268	8	Soleure, p. S.
& Aargau	502	194,208	10	Aargau, p. 4.
4. Zurich	685	266,265	18	Zurich, p. 19.
5. Schaffhausen	119	85,500	3	Schaffhausen, p. 8.
6. Thurgau (toor-gow) .	268	90,080		Frauenfeld, p. 2.
2. Bastern :				
7. St. Gall	747	180,411	9	St. Gall, p. 14.
8. Appenzeli	152	60.431	8	Appenzell, p. 2.
9. Grisons (gre-song) .	2,908	90,718		Coire, p. 6.
3. Southern:-				·
10. Ticino (te-chee-no) .	1.084	116,343	- 6	Lugăno, p. S.
11. Valais (vah-lai)	1,661	90,792		Sion, p. 2.
4. Oentral :				
12. Glarus (reece)	279	33,363	2	Giarus, p. 5.
12. Uri (yu-re)	420	14,741	ī	Altorf, p. 2.
14. Schwytz (shuttes) .	338	45,039	3	Schwytz, p. S.
15. Zug	85	19,608	1	Zug, p. 3.
16. Unterwalden	262	24,902	Ī	Sarnen, p. 3 : Stans, p. 2.
17. Lucerne	587	180.504	7	Lucerne, p. 11
18. Berne	3.561	467,141	23	BERNE, p. 29; Bienne, p. 4.
19. Freiburg (//1)	563	105,528	5	Freiburg, p. 10.
5. Western :				
30. Noufchâtel	L 280	44,149	4	Neufchâtel, p. 10,
21. Vaud (vő)	1,181	213,157	l ıĭ	Lauranne, p. 20,
23. Genéva	91	82.876	1 4	Genëva, p. 41.
Total	15,233	2,510,494	128	· · ·

- 360a. Industrial Occupations. Agriculture, &c.—The advantageous effects of unwearied industry in the cultivation of the soil are remarkably conspicuous in Switzerland; for districts which were naturally barren have, by this means, been rendered fertile and productive. The country, however, is more pastoral than agricultural, the principal wealth of the inhabitants consisting of the rich and excellent pastures, which in summer support vast numbers of cattle.
- b. The chief Products are the vine, wheat, buck-wheat, barley, rye, potatoes, flax, hemp, and common vegetables. Vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and extensive pasture-grounds, cover the feet of the mountains, and sometimes the very summits. In some cantons, the Vine ripens at an elevation of 2,000 ft. above the sea, and buck-wheat at an elevation of 2,300 ft. The slopes both of the Alps and Jura are covered with valuable timber, the oak, beech, larch, and birth.

- · 361a. Manufactures, &c. Swiss Munufactures, especially of linens and cottons, have made great progress of late years. Silks are woven in Zurich and Basle, and linens at Berne. The manufacture of watches, jewellery, and musical-boxes is extensively carried on in Geneva and Neufchatel. It is calculated that about 1,095,000 persons depend either wholly or principally on agriculture and pasturage; 217,000 on the manufacture of cottons, linens, silks, &c.; and 242,000 on the manufacture of clocks, watches, jewellery, &c.
- b. The Commerce of Switzerland, from the situation of the country, can be carried on only by land or rivers, as there are no Canals. Considerable quantities of English goods are introduced by the Rhine and Piedmont. There is also a transit trade between France, Germany, and Italy. c. The ordinary Reads are in general excellent. In 1869, 820 miles of Railway were open.
- d. Among the Alps there are, as before stated (No. 356d.), several dangerous d. Among the Alps there are, as before stated (No. 350d.), several dangerous Passes; of these the following are practicable for wheel carriages:—1. The Pass of the Simplon, connecting Brienne in Valais with Domo d'Ossola in Piedmont, in length 38 miles; 2. Pass of S. Goddard, connecting the tulley of the Russ with that of the Ticinc; 3. Of Bernardin, connecting the valley of the Upper Rhine with that of Misocco; 4. Of the Spiagen, connecting the valley of the Huser Rhin with Chiavenia; 5. Of the Statio, connecting the valley of the Inn with that of the Adda. The following can be traversed only by mules:—5. The Pass of the Great St. Bernard, chunceting the valley of the Upper Rhone with that of the Dora Baltes; 7. Of the Gemmi, connecting the valley of the Kander with that of Lötch in the Valais. 8. Of the Grimsel, connecting the valley of Hasii with that of the Rhone.

- LESSON 131.—362a. Social Condition.—Government.— The Government is a Federal Republic. Each Canton has the management of its own internal affairs; but for the whole Republic, the Sovereign Power is, by the new Constitution of 1848, vested in the Federal Assembly, consisting of 2 Chambers-1. The Senate, composed of 44 members, two for each canton; 2. The National Council, consisting of 128 members, elected by the cantons for 3 years, in the proportion of one member for every 20,000 inhabitants. (See Table, No. 359.)
- b. These two Councils combined have the sole right to declare war, make peace, and settle matters between the cantons and foreign governments. Federal Assembly chooses from among the citizens eligible to the National Council, an Excessive Council of 7 members who hold office for 8 years. The President of the Executive Council receives a salary of 4001, a year, each of the other members receives \$401, a year. The Executive Council conducts the politics, the interior, the finances, commerce, customs, public works, &c. There is also a Federal Judicial Tribunal, consisting of 11 members, to decide on civil and criminal offences. Berne is the federal capital.
- c. The Revenue in 1868 was 854,500l.; the Expenditure \$13,700l.: the Public Debt about 611,9001,
- d. The Army, &c.—The Constitution forbids the maintenance of a standing army; but, to provide for the defence of the country, every man capable of carrying arms is liable to be called out. The troops are formed into 4 classes : -1. The Federal Army, comprising men from the age of 20 to 34; 2. The army of Reserve, men between 35 and 40; 3. The Landwehr or militia, from the age of 41 to 45; and 4. The *Landsurm* or army of defence, all above 45; total in 1869—350,000 men.—Foreign enlistment is forbidden by the constitution. e. The Poor.—Every parish supports its own poor; and for the infirm poor, hospitals exist in every town, some of which are richly endowed.
- 363a. Religion. The majority of the Swiss belong to the Calvinistic Confession of Faith, and of the Presbyterian Form. There is, however, no established church, in the common sense of

the word. In each of the Reformed Cantons, the ecclesiastical affairs are regulated by a Synod. Roman Catholics and all others enjoy full liberty of conscience and freedom of worship.

b. Since 1847 the Monastic Institutions of the Roman Catholics have been suppressed, and the Jesuits, who had attempted to revive the spirit of religious persecution, have been expelled from every canton. In 1860 the Protestants amounted to 1,476,982, the Roman Catholics to 1,023,430, other persuasions to 5,866, the Jens to 4,216. Of the Cantons, 7 are Roman Catholic, namely, Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, Unterwalden, Zug, Freiburg, and Soleure; 6 are *Protestant*, namely, Zurich, Basle, Berne, Schaffhausen, Appenzell, and Glarus or Glaris; the others are mixed.

364a. Education, &c. — Education is widely diffused in Switzerland, but particularly in the Protestant Cantons. Every parent is compelled to send his children to school, or have them privately taught, from the age of 5 to that of 12 years. Subsequent education is encouraged, but not compulsory. Every district is provided with a Primary School, in which the elements of Instruction, with Geography and History, are taught. Sunday and infant schools are also numerous. Secondary Schools and Gymnasia exist in all the large towns. Normal Schools, for the training of teachers, are established in various cantons.

b. Switzerland has 3 Universities, Basle, Berne, and Zurich, and also the Academies of Geneva and Lausanne, in which degrees are granted. Public Libraries are in several of the large towns. Savings Banks and Insurance Societies are pretty numerous.

c. Among the distinguished persons that Switzerland has produced may be c. Among the distinguished persons that Switzerland has produced may be mentioned Zuinglius, Beza, Builinger, and Calvin, Reformers, (Calvin was by birth a Frenchman, but naturalised in Switzerland); Gessner and Bodmer, Poets; Haller, the Bernouillis, Zimmerman, Tissot, Euler, Bonnet, Pictet, and Lavater, men of Science; John Muller, J. J. Rousseau, Sismondi, and Dumont, in general Literature; and Pestalozzi and Fellenberg, in Education.

d. Languages.—The German language is spoken in a variety of patois by about 1,700,000 of the people in the North and Bast. French is spoken in the West by about 500,000 Swiss; in the South, Rakan is spoken by about 150,000 Swiss; in the districts of the Grisons, the Romanche or Rhostian Latin is spoken by about 50,000 of the population.

365. People, Manners, &c.—The situation in which the Swiss are placed, surrounded by powerful and warlike nations, with scanty means of subsistence, the necessity of husbanding their resources, and the difficulty of increasing them, have greatly contributed to render them a sober, industrious, and economical race. As a people, they may be regarded as brave, honest, laborious, prudent, attached to their homes and to freedom, and in general very moral. Though many leave their country in search of employment, they generally return to spend their earnings. In the different Cantons, however, there is a marked difference, both in the general character and manners of the people and in their social condition. Those in the Protestant Cantons are decidedly the most moral, industrious, and intelligent.

366. CHIEF TOWNS AND PLACES OF NOTE. (The Pop. of Towns in thousands.)

Al-torf, cap. of Uri, where Tell is said to

Al-torr, Cap. Of Uri, where 246 is said to have shot the apple off his son's head in 1307, which event was the commencoment of the Swiss insurrection, p. 2.
Båsie, or Basel (båth), cap. of Basie, seat of a university, main, of silks, cottons, &c.: here an ecclesiastical Guundi was held from 1431 to 1448 for the reform of a university, main, of silks, cottons, &c., here an ecclesiastical Council was held from 1431 to 1448 for the reform of the Romish Church; it is the bpl, of Buler, the Bernouillis, and Holbein, p. 37.

Bernes, the Federal cap, of Switserland, Geneva, cap, of Geneva, a Prot. Univers.

seat of a univers., several libraries, an arsenal, and mint; bpl. of Haller, p. 39. Coire (*wor'), cap. of the Grisons, manf. of zinc wares, &c., p. 7. Einsiedeln (*me-sè-den), in Schweits; near

long the resid of Calvin, Farel, Bess, Knox, and other eminent reformers; manf. of watches, musical boxes, &c.,

p. 41. Giarus, or Giaris (reece), cap. of Giarus,

p. 4. Her'issu, in Appenzell, manf. of cottons. muslins, &c., p. 8. Lausanne (lo-zann'),

ausanne (lo-sunn'), cap. of Vaud, in a beautiful sit. on the Lake of Geneva, posaturiui sit. on the Lake of Geneva, manf. of woollens, paper, &c., p. 17. Lucerner, cap. of Lucerne, manf. of cottons, sitks, &c., p. 11. Lugăno, in Ticino, in a fine sit., manf. of silks, leather, &c., p. 4. Beaf-châtel (nu shâh-tsi'), cap. of Neufentsel, in a fine sit., manf. of clocks, watches, &c., p. 8.

Schaffhausen, cap. of Schaffbausen,

benandated, tap.

b manf. of cottons, cutlery, &c., p. 8.

Schwyts, or Schweitz (swites), cap. of

Schwyts, in a fine sit.; here the Swiss

Confederacy was first formed 1207, p. 5. Simplon (askm.plong), a mountain bet, the Valais and Pledmont, across which was carried the cel. Route of the Simwas carried the cell again of Mapoleon ist. The road extends nearly 38 miles, and is 6,563 ft. above the sea. It is now much injured on the Italian side.

Sion (660 on), or Sitten, cap. of the Valais,

p. S.
Soleure (so-kire), cap. of Soleure, where
Kosciusko died, Oct. 16, 1817, p. S.
Thun (toon), in Berne, manf. of silks,

stuffs, p. 5.

Yverdun (& per-din), in Yaud, where Pes-talozzi established his educational in-stitute in 1805, p. 4.

Zurich (su-rik), cap. of Zurich, seat of a

univers., manf. of cottons, silks, &c.; here Zwinglius established the Refor-mation in 1524; bpl. of Gessner, Lavater, Pestalozzi, p. 19.

LESSON 132.—367a. History.—Switzerland (the Central and Western parts of which were anciently called *Heloetia*, the Eastern or the Grisons, *Rhætia*) was conquered by Julius Cesar, and annexed to the Roman Empire. flourishing towns sprang up, which were subsequently destroyed by the bar-barians. On the decline of the Roman power, the Western portion of Switzerland was selzed upon by the Burgundians, who came from the shores of the Battic and made Geneva their capital. The Eastern part was occupied by the Alemanni, or 'all-men,' a combination of tribes, chiefly of the Suevic race, who lived near the Upper Rhine. The Southern, called Rhatia, was seized upon by the Italian Goths. All the old natives became Serfs of these new masters.

b. About 534 A.D. these tribes were successively conquered by the Franks, who divided the country into three parts; namely, Transjurane Burgundy, or who divided the country into three parts; namely, Transparane Buryundy, or Burgundy beyond the Jurs, occupied by the Burgundy and Alemannia, the district occupied by the Alemanni, between the Aar and the Rhine; and Rharia, the South and South-Eastern part. Over the large districts, a Duke or governor was appointed, while smaller districts were governed by Count. During the reign of Charlemagne, under whom the Feudal System was more fully developed, several of the more important towns had peculiar privileges granted to them, and were styled Free Imperial Cities. Still, the Emperor reserved his right of appointing as his representative a Governor over each of these, with certain judicial power. When the Frankish Empire was divided among the successors Maria bower. Then the Francisco Empire was divided among the successors of Louis le Debonnaire in 840, Burgundian Helvetia fell to the lot of Lotharius, Emperor of Germany and King of Italy, while Eastern Helvetia fell to the share of Louis of Bavaria, and continued attached to the Duchy of Swabia. About the same time, the 'ounts' made themselves hereditary and suzerains of their respective districts, of which they had before been only magistrates or governors. They then took po session of the crown lands and received the fees of the crown tenants, who henceforth became vassals of the local lord.

In 889, Transjurane Burgundy, which had been detached from the German Empire, was made into an independent kingdom by Count Rudolf. This continued to 1016, when Rudolf 3rd, having no male issue, made it over to the Emperor Henry 2nd. In 1097, Henry 4th made Zurich an Imperial Free City. In 1818, the towns of Berne, Solenre, Basle, and Schaffhausen received imperial charters from the Emperor Frederick 2nd.

c. In 1264, Rudolf, Count of Hapsburg, in Aargau, had, by various inheritances and annexations, become one of the most powerful lords in Switzerland. When elected Emperor of Germany in 1273, he continued as his predecessors had done to favour the independence of the Swiss free towns. At his death, however, in 1291, his son Albert adopted a different policy, and attempted to annex the free towns and their recritories to his patrimonial estates, which were adjacent to them. For this purpose, he attacked Berne and Zurich, but failed in his attempt. With a similar object he required, in 1800 A.D., the forest Cantons of Schwytz, Uri, and Unterwalden, which had been for ages free communities under the protection of the Empire, to acknowledge him as their Duke. the cantons refused to do. As, however, he had a right to appoint bailiffs or governors over the towns to administer criminal jurisdiction, he nominated such only as would favour his intentions. One of these bailiffs was Grasler, who, by his, harsh and tyrannical conduct, occasioned great disaffection. At this juncture, in 1307, three individuals, Stauffacher of Schweitz, Furst of Urt, and Melothhal of Unterwalden, conspired to free their country from the tyranny of Gessler and the yoke of Austria. Shortly afterwards, G-ssler was shot by WILLIAM TELL, as he was passing through a mountain defile. The peasantry then flew to arms at the call of Tell, drove away Albert's officers, and razed their castles to the ground. Upon this, Albert prepared an army to punish the revolters, but was murdered by his nephew John of Hapsburg in 1308. His son Leopold, however, resolved to carry out his father's intention, and for this purpose invaded Switzerland in 1315, with an army of 20,000 men. This was encountered by the Swiss, amounting only to 1,400 men, in the Pass of Morgarten, 5 miles from Schweitz, and signally defeated. By this victory, the independence of these Cantons was secured.

d. The Confederation, thus formed, was joined by Lucerns in 1382; Eurich and Glarus in 1351; Zug and Berne in 1352, making up the 8 Old Cantons. A federal Diet was then appointed. On July 9, 1386, Leopold 2nd, of Austria, when marching an army against Lucerne, was defeated and killed at Empach, 8 miles from Lucerne. Soleure and Freeburg were somitted in 1481; Basis and Schaffhausen in 1501; and Appensell in 1518, forming in all 18 Cantons. In 1422, the Valais was admitted as an ally. The independence of the Confederacy, thus constituted, was acknowledged in 1516 by France and the other powers; and confirmed in 1648, by the treaty of Weisphaia. Subsequently, several adjoining districts were conquered and annexed, but the number of Cantons (13) continued till 1798, when the country, having been over-run by the French, was formed into the Helvetic Republic, which lasted only 4 years.

The States in alliance with the Confederation, during the preceding period,

The States in alliance with the Confederation, during the preceding period, with Vote in the Diet, were the abbey of St. Gall, and the free cities of St. Gall, Muhlhausen in Alsace, and Bienne. The allies without vote were Genera, Newschätel, the Valais, and the Grisons.

e. The Doctrines of the Reformation were, through the able and zealous exertions of Zwinglius, frequently styled 'the Apostle of the Swiss Reformation,' adopted in Zurich in 1523. In 1530, St. Gall, Blenne, Basle, and Schaffhauer followed; and in 1532, their influence had so far extended that the Helestic Confession of Faith was proclaimed by a Synod held at Berne. In 1535, the reformed Religion was established at Geneva; and shortly after, Calvin and Farel, eminent Reformers, settled in that city. In 1538, in consequence of controversy raised to settle some disputed points, Farel and Calvin were expelled from Geneva. On his expulsion, Calvin proceeded first to Basle and thence to Strasburg, where he was appointed Professor of Divinity. From this place, he was with difficulty induced to return in 1541 to Geneva, where he continued to reside till his death in 1564. Farel retired to Neufchâtel, where he laboured with unwearied zeal till his death in 1565.

There have been three Religious Wars in Switzerland, between the Roman Catholics and Protestants. The First took place in the infancy of Protestantsm, when the Forest Cantons of Schweits, Uri, and Unterwalden, attacked and defeated the Zurichers, Oct. 11, 1531. In this battle, the Reformer Zwinglius lost his life. The Second occurred in 1653, which ended in the defeat of the Protestants at the battle of Willmergen. The Third and last Religious War was when the Bernese troops defeated those of Lucerne, Freyburg, and the other Catholic Cantons at Willmergen in 1712. The Roman Catholics then sued for peace, which was concluded at Aargan in Aug. 1712.

f. In 1803, Napoleon 1st increased the number of Cantons to 19, by adding Aargau, St. Gall, Grisons, Ticino, Thurgau, and Vaud. In 1815, a further addition was made of the cantons of Valaits, Geneva, and Naufchâtel: thus completing the present number of 22 Cantons, the independence of which was secured by the treaty of Vienna. Neufchâtel, however, was an appanage of the Prussian crown from 1707 to 1848, when it obtained its independence. In 1889, a law having been passed to render education independent of the Clergy, the Roman Catholic Cantons (Lucerne, Uri, Schweits, Unterwalden, Freyburg, and Valais), formed a league, called the Sonderbund, to resist its introduction. This caused a Civil War in 1847, when the Sonderbund was defeated, and the Cantons compelled to submit to the Scanlarisation of all monastic property, and the expulsion of the Jesuits from every canton. In 1848, the present Federal Constitution was brought into operation, and the city of Berne chosen as the Federal Capital.

LESSON 133 .- SPAIN.

- 368a. Physical.—Extent, &c.—Spain (anc. Hispania), Length from N. to S., 540 miles; Breadth, E. to W., 598 miles; Area, exclusive of the islands, 177,781 sq. miles; including the Balearic and Canary Isles, 182,758 sq. miles; Pop. in 1864, 16,302,625; Cap. Madeid.
- b. Seas, Gulfs, &c.—Bay of Biscay, Santander, Arosa, and Vigo Bays; Atlantic Ocean; Bay of Cadiz; Straits of Gibraltar; Mediterran an Sea, and Gulf of Rosas.
- c. Chief Islands. The Baleāric Islands namely, Majorca, Minorca, Iviça; Area, 1,758 sq. miles; Pop. 262,893; Cap. Palma. Canāry Isles, Area, 3,223 sq. miles; Pop. 234,046; Cap. Las Palmas.
- d. Capes.—Ortegal' on the N.; Finisterre (tare) on the N.-W.; Trafalgar' on S.-W.; Tarifa and Europa Point on the S.; Gibraltar, Gata, Palos, and Creux on the Mediterranean.
- 369a. Surface. The Surface of Spain is much diversified, being traversed by long and lofty ranges of mountains, which have plains of vast extent between them and the sea. The whole centre of Spain is one vast table-land, which rises from 2,000 to 3,000 ft. above the level of the sea, and occupies nearly 92,000 sq. miles. It consists of two Plains—the Plain of Madrid and Toledo, and the Plain of La Mancha. Both these are nearly destitute of trees, except some groves of evergreen oak near the hills, and plantations of olive-trees and vines near the villages. Other Plains of Spain, smaller in extent and lower in position, are the plains of Andalusia, Valencia, and the Ebro.
- b. Mountains.—The principal Mountain Ranges (called in Spain sierra, from Lat. serra, a saw) are the following:—The Pyrenees; Mts. of Asturias, Castile, Toledo; the Sierra Morena, and Nevada.
- c. Rivers. Ebro (420 m.); Xucar (200 m.); Guadalquiver (320 m.); Guadalana (420 m.); Tagus (600 m.); Douro (500 m.); Mivho (130 m.)
 - d. Lakes. Albu'fera in Valencia, Mar-Menor in Murcia.
- 370a. Climate.—The Climate of Spain varies exceedingly with the elevation and position. In the Interior, on the table-lands, the Climate is subject to great extremes of heat in Summer and cold in Winter. On the Northern and Western Coasts, the Climate is more moist and the Summer cooler than in the interior. On the Southern and Eastern Coasts, Summer is very hot and Winter mild. Spain is exposed to two Winds which are injurious—the Galego, from the mountains of Galicia, which is piercing and injurious; and the Solano, from the South-East, a hot, arid, and enfeebling wind, frequently producing pestilential fevers.
 - b. The mean Wint. Temp. of Madrid is 43°; of Barcelona, 50°; of Cadiz, 51°. The mean Sum. Temp. of Madrid is 76°; of Barcelona, 77°; of Cadiz 70°.
- c. Roinfall.—In Spain, Rain generally falls in Winter. The annual Rainfall at Bilbão in the North is about 100 inches; at Coimbra, on the West coast, about 111 inches, while on the great Central Plateau, it is only about 10 inches; in the Southera Haritime region it is about 20 inches.

271a. Soil, &c.—The Soil in all the lower grounds and on the Eastern Coast is very fertile. In the elevated districts of the central provinces there is much arid barren land.

b. Minerals.—Spain is rich in Minerals, especially in iron, copper, lead, zinc, manganese, silver, cornelian, agate, loadstone, sulphur, marble, and jasper, with some emeralds, diamonds, and amethysts. At Al'maden, in La Mancha, with quicksilver mine, the most ancient known in the world. Mines of gold formerly existed, and are thought not yet to be exhausted. This is found in several parter, and coal is now worked in Asturias and the Sierra Morens. c. Of wild aminals, wolves, bears, wild boars, wild cats, foxes, and lynxes, infest the mountainous districts.

LESSON 134.—372a. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Spain was formerly divided into 13 Provinces; these, since 1833, have been subdivided into 47 Provinces, or including the islands into 49, as shown below:—

Old Provinces.	Modern Provinces.	Chief Towns,
1. Galicia	1. Corunna 2. Lugo 3. Orense	{ Corun'na, 20; Santiãgo, 28; Ferrol, 16. Lugo, 7. Orense, 5.
2. Asturias	4. Pontevedra Oviêdo	Pontevedra, 4; Vigo, 6. Oviedo, 10; Gijon, 6.
Ar. 3,680 Sq. m. 3. Leon	1. Leon 2. Zamōra 3. Saismanca 1. Burgos 2. Logrono	Leon, 7; Astorga, 3. Zamora, 9. Salamanea, 14; Ciudad-Rodrigo, 5. Burgos, 10. Logrono, 8.
4. Old Castile	8. Santander 4. Soria 5. Segovia 6. Avila 7. Palencia 8. Vailad'olid'	Santander, 16. Soria, 5. Segovia, 15. Avila, 4. Palencia, 11. Vallad'olid', 20
5. New Castile	1. Madrid 2. Tolēdo 8. Guadsiaxara 4. Guença 5. Ciudad-Real	MADRID, 475. Toledo, 15; Talavēra, 6. Guadalaxara, 2. Cuença, 6. Cludad-Real, 10; Al'maden, 8.
6. Estremadura	1. Badajos 2. Caceres 1. Séville 2. Cadis	Badajoz, 12. Caceres, 12; Truxillo, 2, Seville, 152: Ecija, 24.
7. Andalusia	8. Huelva 4. Cordova 5. Jaen	Cadiz, 72; Xeres, 34. Huelva, 7. Cordōva, 45. Jaen, 20; Andujar, 9.
8. Granāda	1. Granāda 2. Almeira 3. Mal'aga	Granāda, 101. Almeira, 19. Malasta, 113. [Murcia, 109: Cartagēna, 34: Lorca,
9. Murcia	1. Murcia 2. Albacete 1. Valencia	Albacete, 25. Valencia, 146; Murviedro, 5.
10. Valencia	2. Alicant 3. Castellon 1. Barcelona	Alicant, 19. Castellon de la Plana, 17. Bercelona, 252; Vich. 10. Tarragona, 18; Tortōsa, 20; Reus,
11. Catalônia	2. Tarragona 2. Lerida 4. Geróna 1. Saragossa	28. Lerida, 12. Gerona, 8; Figueras, 8; Olot, 2. Saragossa, 82.
12. Aragon } Ar. 14,726 Sq. m. {	2. Huesca 8. Teruel 1. Navarre 2. Biscay	Huesca, 9. Teruel, 7. Pampeluna, 80 ; Tudela, 8. Bilbao, 15
13. Basque Provinces . Ar. 5,421 Sq. m.	a. Guipuzcoa.	Tolosa, 6; San Sebastian, 19. Vittoria, 16.
14. B. Islanda	1. Baleāric Isles 2. Canaries	Palma, 40; Port Mahon, 13 Las Palmas, 18.

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- b. Andorre is a small and nominally independent Republic, having had a separate existence since 790 a.b. It lies on the Spanish side of the Pyrenees, and consists of a few mountains with their intermediate valleys, occupying about 200 sq. miles. The cap. is Andorre, with a pop. of about 1,000 inhabitants. The inhabitants of the district amounting to about 6,000, are chiefly occupied in iron-forging, the manufacture of coarse cloths, and in smugrling. The Spanish bishop of Urgel exercises some authority over the district, but the executive is vested in two chief magistrates, who are assisted by a Council of 24 members.
- c. Gibbaltar, at the extreme South of Spain, stands on a remarkable rock, 1,450 ft. above the sea. It was taken from the Spaniards by Sir George Rooke in 1704; and, notwithstanding various attempts made to recover it, has belonged to the English ever since. The pop. of the town, exclusive of the garrison, is 15,426.
- **LESSON 135. 373**a. Industrial Occupations.—Agriculture. Notwithstanding many drawbacks and restrictions imposed on industry by former unenlightened governments, Agriculture within the last 20 years has made progress.
- b. The chief Products are—the finest wheat and most delicious fruits, especially grapes, figs, oranges, lemons, citrons, oilves, almonds, and nuts; also, honey, rice, tobaxxo, saffron, liquorice, barilla, fiax, hemp, silk, and the wool of the merino sheep. The sack and sherry wines are in high repute. Some of the mountains are clothed to the very top with fine trees, rich fruits, and aromatic herbs. Though the Soil is, in most parts, naturally fertile, there are large tracts of land lying waste from want of cultivation. c. bomestic Animals.—The merino sheep are famous for yielding the finest wool, the horses and mules are of a superior breed. Coats are numerous, pigs less so. The bulls are remarkable for their fierceness; and bull-fights form a favourite amusement of the Spaniards. The care of the sink-worm, of bees, and of the cochineal insect are branches of industry.
- 374a. Manufactures, &c.—The Spanish Manufactures, once so famous, have greatly declined since the expulsion of the Moors. The sword manufacture of Toledo is almost extinct. A few manufactures only remain, of which the principal are—broad-cloths in Aragon and Catalonia; linens in Galicia; silks and cottons at Valencia; leather, glass, porcelain, and hardware in various places. Saltpetre, cannon, fire-arms, gunpowder, and tobacco form a government monopoly.
- b. Commerce.—Since the loss of her American colonies, the commerce of Spain is very limited. The chief Exports are wines, fruits, brandy, wool, raw and manufactured slik, lead, iron, quicksliver, barills, and a few other articles. The Exports to Great Britain in 1868 amounted to 6,991,000. The chief Imports are sugar, cocoa, salt fish, spices, wood, rice, butter, cheese, hides, cotton and woollen goods, cuttery, glass, and coal. The value of the Imports from Great Britain in 1868, amounted to 2,208,000. Smuggling is carried on to a great extent, particularly in the Southern provinces. c. Roads, &c.—There are no good public Roads, except those around Madrid and other large towns, on which stage coaches run. The other roads are wretched. Wheel carriages are not much used; most of the transport was till lately effected by means of mules. The Railways in operation in 1865 amounted to 2,902 miles. There are several Casals, but in an unfinished state. d. The chief Ports are San Sebastian, Bilbbo, and Corunna on the N; Vigo on the N.-W.; Seville, a large river port, and Oadiz on the N.-West; Almeria, Malaga, Cartagena, Alicant, Valencia, and Barcelona, on the Mediterranean.
- 375a. Government.—In Oct. 1868, a Revolution took place, by which Isabella 2nd, the reigning sovereign, was expelled from the throne, and a Provisional Government appointed under the leader-

ship of Marshal Serrano, General Prim, and Admiral Topete. In Feb. 1869, the Cortes assembled at Madrid, and on May following adopted the Monarchical Principle by 214 votes against 71. In Dec. 1870, Prince Amadeus, Duke of Aosta, second son of Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy, was nominated King of Spain by the Cortes. By the Constitution of June 1869, the Legislative Power resides in the Cortes, which consists of two chambers—the Senate, of which a fourth part is to be renewad every three years; and the Congress, which is to be totally renewed every three years. The King sanctions and promulgates the Laws. The Executive Power resides in the King, who exercises it by means of responsible ministers.

b. The Revenue in 1868 was 25,846,0001.; the Public Expenditure was 26,564,0001.; the Public Debt 225,093,0001. c. The Army is formed by conscription—let, for the permanent army; 2nd, for the active reserve; and far, for the sedentary reserve. The purchase of substitutes is not only allowed but encouraged by government. In 1870, the regular army amounted to 151,000 men of all kinds. The Navy like the army is recruited by conscription. In 1870, there were 86 vessels of various kinds, manned by about 21,000 men. d. The Poor.—In Spain there is no regular provision for the poor; beggars are numerous, and the labouring poor are very ill-fed. There were till lately many banditti.

276a. Religion. — Roman Catholicism was, till 1868, the only religion established in Spain, without toleration to any other. But since the Revolution, the Spanish Cortes, in April 1869, rejected, by 194 votes against 51, a renewal of Roman Catholic exclusiveness and intolerance, and nobly declared, that henceforth both natives and foreigners should enjoy the free exercise of whatever religious worship they preferred. The consequence of this has been, that Protestant places of worship have been opened in many of the large towns, and the Holy Scriptures extensively circulated where formerly not a single copy was allowed to exist.

b. The infamous court of Inquisition, erected for the support of the Romish faith, and introduced into Spain in the reign of Ferdinand and isabelia in 1490, was finally abolished by the Cortes in 1820. The order of Jesuits (falsely named the society of Jesus 1) frequently denominated the militia of the Romish Church, was founded in 1546 by IGNATUS LOYOLA, a native of Spain. Loyola was first a soldier, but having been wounded in 1521, renounced the military for the ecclesiastical procession. He dedicated his life to the Blessed Virgin; made a pligrimage to the Holy Land, and on his return laid the foundation of his society first Paris in 1534, which afterwards, in 1546, received the confirmation of the Pope. "The wealth of the clergy and convents in Spain was at one time immense, forming in 1812 about one-Jourth of the landed property of the kingdom, axclusive of the tithes and other sources of income; and producing." mays Mr. Maccullach, "about 11,000,000. per annum, which was far above the total revenue of the whole country." By two decrees, however, of the Cortes, passed in 1835 and 1835, all consentual establishments were suppressed, and their property confiscated for the benefit of the nation. By another decree in 1855, the whole of the church property was ordered to be sold for the benefit of the State, thee proceeds of which in 1863, amounted to more than 30,000,000!. In 1862, there were in Spain about 40,000 priests, 9 Archhishops, and 70 Bishops.

LESSON 136.—377a. Education, &c.—Until 1838, Education was entirely in the hands of the priesthood, when it was rare to find a peasant or ordinary workman who was able to read. Since

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that time each commune has been required to have at least one primary school, by which a great improvement has been effected. Still, the vast majority of the people are extremely ignorant, bigoted, and superstitious. Since 1857, all teachers have been subject to an examination.

- b. In 1868, there were 1,251,653 pupils of both sexes in public and private schools; with 58 colleges for middle-class education. In addition to these, there are faculties of law, literature, and philosophy, science, medicine, and theology.
- c. The Language throughout the country, except in the Basque provinces on the North, is Spanish, the basis of which is Latis, retaining many of the ancient inflexions. It retains a large admixture of Teutonic and Arabic words which require a guttural accent. The most celebrated of the Spanish authors are—Quevedo, the satirist, and Cervantes, the author of "Don Quixote."
- · 378a. Races, Character, &c.—In Spain, there are four Races—1. The Spainards Proper, a mixture of the original inhabitants with Greeks, Romans, and Goths; these form the great bulk of the population; 2. The Basques, about \$00,000 descendants of the ancient Cantabrians, who spank a language different from the Spanish; 3. The Morescos, or descendants of the Moors; 4. The Gittanes or gypsies, amounting to about 60,000, and dispersed over the country. b. In Appearance, the Spaniards are middle-sized, well-proportioned, with dark hair, piercing eyes, and sallow complexions. In Dress, cloaks and broadbrimmed hats are generally worn by the men, and the mantilla and fan are in universal use among females. c. In Character, the Spaniards, though greatly differing in the various provinces, yet, as a nation are represented as being proud, indolent, passionate, and frequently lax in morals. Much of this is owing to the unfavourable circumstances under which they have been placed. Ages of misgovernment, a rapacious, bigoted, and intolerant priesthood, and a general want of all moral and useful instruction have naturally had a baneful effect. In spite, however, of these demoralising influences, the character of the peasantry presents many good qualities; among which may be mentioned their fidelity, patriotism, and sobriety. As soldiers they are brave, following their officers through the greatest dangers. The recent Revolution has borne ample testimony to the manly sense and forbearance of the upper and middle classes, and the general good conduct of the lower. Dancing and the wellknown bull-fights form the principal amusements of the Spaniards.—From the nature of the climate, the Siesta, or repose during the heat of the day, is customary to all classes. From One o'clock P.M. to Four P.M. the shops in Madrid and in most other places are either closed, or a curtain is drawn before the door, and scarcely a respectable person is to be seen in the street. soon as the siesta is over, everything is again instinct with life and bustle.
- 379. Colonial Possessions.—Of the former wast Possessions, the following are the only ones remaining:—1. In Africa—The Presides, or 4 penal settlements on the N. coast of Africa, of which Ceuta is the chief; the prov. of Tetuan; the Canary lsies off the West coast, of which Palma, Ferro, Teneriffe, Canary, and Fuertaventura are the chief; Fernando Po and Annabon in the Gulf of Guines.
- In the West Indies—Cuba, Porto Rico, and some of the Virgin Isles, (St. Domingo was renounced in 1865.)
- 3. In Asia and Oceania—Part of the Philippine Isles (Luzon, Mindanao, Samar, Palawan, &c.); the Ladrone or Marianne Isles; the Carolines, and part of Bornio.
- Formerly Spain possessed Mexico, Texas, Florida, California, Central America. Venezuela, New Granada, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and La Plata, all of which she has lost.

LESSON 137 .- 380 .- CHIEF TOWNS AND PLACES OF HISTORIC NOTE.

Note. - Names of Places well known should retain their popular pronunciation.

Alcan'eira (and Norba Caesario), in Es-tremadura, a fortified town, with the ruins of Trajan's bridge, p. 4. Alcain' (de Hemeres), in New Castile, bpl. of Cervantes in 1547; here Cardinai Ximénes puolished his Polygiott Bible,

Alcoy (al-co-e), in Valencia, manf. of cloth,

paper, &c., p. 27.
Alicant, in Valencia, a seaport with much trade in wine, barillas, p. 25.
Al'māden, in New Castlle, nr. which are

mines of quicksilver, p. 8. Almeria (al-mā-rēs-a), in Granāda, a large

seaport, p. 17.

Andorre', cap, of the small repub, of Andorre', p. 2.

Antequera (an-tă-kā-rah), in Granada,

manf. of woollens, p. 17. Av'ila, in Old Castile, seat of a univers.,

manf. of cloth, p. 5.

Badajoz (bad-d-hōce), cap. of Estremadura, a strong town, taken by the English under Weilington in 1812, p. 12.

Balearic Isles (so called from βάλλω, I

throw, the ancient inhabs, being famous slingers), comprise Majorca, Minorca, singers, comprise majorca, autorca, jujqa, Formentara, and Cabrera. Cap. PALMA; Ar. 1,758 Sq. m., Pop. 262,893. Barcelona (anc. Barceno), cap. of Catalonia, a strong scaport, and the first commis, a

mercial city in Spain, p. 252. Near it is

Montserat, a convent on an isolated rock,
3,800 ft. above the sea, the resort of Loyola in 1522.

Loyota in 1522. Bidassoa, a river in Navarre, the boundary bet. France and Spain.

o, cap. of Biscay, with great trade in wool, p. 15.

woon, p. 13.
Burgos, cap. of Old Castile, the former residence of the kings of Castile, till 1085, and here the famous Cld lived,

1085, and here the lamous the lived, p. 16.
Galtz (anc. Gades), in Andalusia, a strong scaport, with a fine harbour, p. 72.
Cartagena (anc. Carthago Nova), in Murcia, a strong scaport, p. 33.
Castile (teel), Old and New, two large provs, so called from castellum, a fortress, because many were erected by the Christian princes to defend their prosessions from the Moors. ossessions from the Moors.

Ciudad Real (the 50 dad-ra-al'), cap. of La Mancha, S. of New Castlle, p. 8. Ciudad Rodrigo (rod-ree-go), in Leon, a atrong town, taken from the French by

the British in 1812, p. 5. Cor'dova (anc. Corduba), in Andalusia, Roain, with the anc. cap. of Saracen Spain, many Moorish remains, man manf. of

leather, silk, paper, &c., p. 160.
Corun'na, a seaport in Galicia, where Sir
John Moore fell after repulsing Marshal

Boult, Jan. 16, 1809, p. 19. Ecija (d.thē-ah, anc. Astigt), in Andalusia,

manf. of coarse wooliens, p. 23.

Becurial, The, 24 m. N.-W. of Madrid, a cel.
pal. and monastery, erected by Philip
2nd in 1563, to commemorate his vict.

2nd in 1563, to commemorate his vict.
at St. Quentin in N. France, galared on
St. Laurence's day, Aug. 10, 1557.
Fernando, St., in Andalusia, a strong
town, with a naval acad, p. 9. [p. 16,
ferol, in Galiela, a large naval station,
Figueras (*egd-ras), in Catalonia, a strong

fortress, p. 8.
Gibraltar, S. of Andalusis, a strong fortress and rock, belonging to England since 1704, pop. of town, 17.

Granada (anc. Illiberis), cap. of Granada, the former residence of the Moorish kings, has a cel, pal, and fortress, called the Alkambra or red building. with a university, p. 100.

LESSON 138.—381. Iviça (iv'-Lasson 135.—381. Ivica (iv.-i-sa), the analiset of the Balearic Isles, temp. mild, p. 11,000. Jacob et al. (incas, woollens, p. 17. Ie'on (anc. Leglo), cap. of Leon, manf. of linens, stockings, &c., p. 7. Lerida (anc. Ilerda), in Catalonia, a strong town in Isle

town, p. 16. Lor'ca, in Murcia, with some Rom. antiq.,

Lor'ca, in Murcia, with some Kona, annea, manf, of saltpetre, linens, p. 48. Lu'car, St., in Andalusia, a large river port, with great trade, p. 17. Madrid, cap, of Spain, in New Castle, made the cap, by Philip Ind: it stands in an arid and elevated plain, 4,12 ft. above the sea; the climate is subject to the extrement of heat and could: the city the extremes of heat and cold ; th

contains many fine buildings, p. 475. Mahon (hone), a strong port in the isle of

Minorca, p. 14.
Major'ca, the largest of the Balearic isles;
Ar. 1,480 sq. m., Pop. 181,800, Cap. PALMA.
Climate mild, soil fertile, chief prods.

grapes, oranges, melous, and corn.
Mai'aga (anc. Maidca), in Granada, a
large commercial city, manf. of linen infree commercial city, mann, of timen and woollen goods, great trade in wines, olive oil, figs; taken from the Moors in 1487, p. 118.

Manchia, La, a pastoral district Soath of New Osatile, scene of Don Quixote's adventures, p. 244,000.

Minorca, the second of the Balcaric isles;

Ar. 260 sq. m., Pop. 14,000; the soil rather poor.

Murcis, cap. of Murcia, manf. of silk, gunpowder, &c., p. 109. Navarr's, a small prov. in the N., for-merly a kingdom which theu included districts both N. and S. of the Pyrenees, and enjoyed particular privileges. Ferdinand of Aragon conquered and annexed the Southern part to Aragon in 1512. Ar. 4,042 sq. m., Pop. 287,433;

in 1512. Ar. 4,042 sq. m., Pop. 397,623; Cap. P.Ampellüna.
Oviedo (ā-do), in Asturias, a university, manf. of arms, leather, &c., p. 12.
Palma, a scaport, cap. of Majorca, p. 40.
Pampellun (loona, anc. Pampello, in Navarre, a strong fortress, taken by the British on Oct. 18, 1612, p. 80.
Reus (ra-da), in Catalonia, manf. of silk, cotton. linen. n. 38.

eotton, linen, p. 28.
Ron'da, in Granada, with Moorish remains, manf. of arms, p. 16.

mains, manf. of arms, p. 18.
Salaman'ce (anc. Solumnikos), in Leon,
seat of a university; here the British
under Wellingten def. the French under
Marmont, July 32, 1812, p. 18.
Santan'der, a seaport in Oid Castile, p. 28.
Santi'go (ass.t-ch.pg) de Compostella,
in Galicia, a university with a cel.
cathedral, said to contain the superstitiously supposed remains of St.
James the apostle! p. 28.
Sarracosas (anc. Coento-Augusto), in
Sarracosas (anc. Coento-Augusto), in

Saragoesa (inc. Ocesario-Augusto), in Aragon, cel. for a siege sustained against the French in 1808, p. 82.

Sebasti'an, St., in Biscay, a strong scaport, wrested from the French by the British, Aug. 31, 1813, p. 19.

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Següvia, in Old Castile, with many Roman , Tortosa (anc. Dertosa), in Catalonia, a mains, p. 18

Bevill'e (anc. Hispālis), in Andalusia, a large commerc. city, with many Moorish remains, a cel. cathedral, manf.

of siks, woollens, p. 152.
Talave'ra, in New Castile, cel. for a vict.
gained by the British over the French
in 1809, p. 9.
Tarragona (anc. Turvāco), in Catalonia, a

aport, p. 18.

Toledo (anc. Toletum), in New Castle, cel. for its cathedral, manf. of sword blades; its archbishop is primate of Spain, p. 13.

strong town, p. 20.

Traf'sigar', a cape on the coast of Anda-lusia, cel. for the victory gained by Nelson over the combined fleets of France and Spain in Oct. 1805.

France and Spann in Oct. 1805. Valencia, cap. of Valencia, cap. of Valencia, a seeport and seat of a univers., p. 145. Vallad'olid' (18ed), cap. of a prov. in Okl Castile, a univers., p. 89. Vigo, in Galicia, a seaport, p. 8. Vitturia, in Biscay, fam. for a victory gained by Wellington over the French, June 21, 1813, p. 16. Xeres (24-78), near Cadis in Andalusia, cel, for its wines.

LESSON 139.—382a. HISTORY.—EARLY PRILOD.—Long before the Christian Era, Spain was occupied by various tribes—Cells, Greeks, and Phosicians. About 360 B.C. the Carthaginians formed several settlements in the country. During the rivalry between Carthage and Rome, Spain was frequently the theatre of war. In the different conflicts which ensued, the most eminent of the Carthaginian commanders were Hamiltan, Hasdrubal, and Hannibal. After the expulsion of the Carthaginians about 206 B.C., a struggle commenced between the Romans and the native inhabitants, especially those in the North and North-East, the Gallect, Cantibri, Astires, Celtibri, and Numantines.

At this period the country was considered by the Romans as indefinitely divided into two large districts, namely, Hupania Citerior, or Hither Spain, comprising the North-Eastern and Eastern districts; and Hispania Ulterior, or Further Spain, comprising the Southern and Western districts.

Afterwards, when the whole Peninsula had been conquered, it was divided by Augustus, about 25 years B.C., into three large Provinces, namely, 1. Tarraconensis;

2. Bestica; 3. Lusitania.

- 1. TABBACONERSIS occupied the North and Centre, of which the chief towns were TARRÃOO, Turregona; Cabthãgo Nova, Cartegêna; Saguntum, Murviedro; Valer-tia and Numantia; Barcino, Barcelona; Pompélo, Pampelûna; Tolētum, Tolēdo; DEBTOSA, Tortosa; CESARAUGUSTA, Suragossa.
- 2. Bertica occupied the South, of which the most Southerly part was called Turissess, or the Turshish of Scripture. The chief towns were—Gades, Cadis; Malaba, Malaga; Munda; Astici, Ecija; Hispalis, Seville; Cordona; Lilisens, Granda.
- LUBITABLA comprised all Portugal South of the Douro, and a little of the Bast part of Spain. The chief Towns were—BRÖRA, Zoro; AUGUSTA-EMERITA, Merido; Olispo, Lisbon; NORBA CARSABLA, Monviara; Balkarston, Sadamaca; Balkarston.

During the Roman sway, the language, manners, and civilisation of the Romans were adopted by the natives, except in the Basque provinces, which had then, as now, a language peculiar to themselves. Of the distinguished Romans who were born in Spain may be mentioned Seneca, Lucan, Trajan, and Theodosius the Great.

- 5. GOTHIC PERIOD .- On the decline of the Roman power, the country was invaded about 409 A.D. by the Vandals and Suevi. In 414 A.D. the Visigoths (or Western Goths) entered Spain, and succeeded in 466 A.D. in establishing a western Goths) entered Spain, and successed in 400 A.D. in establishing supremacy over the whole country, and making Toledo their capital. About 586 A.D. they embraced Christianity, which had already greatly declined from its criginal purity. In 711 A.D. Count Julian, a Gothic governor of Tingitana in North Africa, then belonging to the Goths, from some affront which he had received, tracherously invited the SARACENS of Africa (who were followers of Mahomet) to invade Spain with a powerful army. A great battle was fought near Cadiz, when the Goths were defeated, and Roderict, their king, perished whilst flying from the victorious foe. In a short time, the Saracens succeeded in subduing and attaching as a province of the Caliphs of Bagdad the whole of Spain, except the North, where, amongst the mountain fastnesses of Asturias, the remnant of the Goths took refuge, and steadily maintained their independence.
- c. SARACENIC PERIOD .- When the Saracens had achieved the conquest of Spain, they next attempted the invasion of France. But their victorious career

was effectually checked by the memorable defeat which they sustained near Tours, in a.D. 732, by which Charles Martel saved both France and Christendom from further Saracenic aggression. In 755, Abderahman, the Vicercy of the Caliph, declared himself an independent King, and made Cordova the capital of Saracenic Spaig. This soon became the seat of learning, science, and manufacturing industry. For, wherever the Saracens settled, numerous schools arose. Astronomy, chemistry, medicine, mathematics, algebra, the mechanical arts. as well as poetry and history, were all diligently cultivated. In 778, Charlemagne invaded Spain, and penetrated as far as the Ebro; but on his return, he was surprised at the pass of Roncesvalles, among the Pyrenees in Navarre, where he lost many of his knights, of whom was Orlando, or Roland, his nephew. In process of time, the dominions of the Saracens were weakened by internal dissensions, and divided into several separate states; while the Gothic Christian Princes, who had fied into Asturias, seized every opportunity to extend and strengthen their territories at the expense of their weakened neighbours. The small Christian kingdom of Orido was founded about 720 A.D., at first of very limited extent, but gradually embracing the surrounding district. Other independent Christian kingdoms were subsequently formed, especially those of Leon, about 910 A.D., Castie, about 1026, and Aragon, about 1035. Ultimately, all these were merged into the two powerful kingdoms of Castie and Aragon, and in 1474 A.D. these became united by the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon with Isabella, and Aragon, and in 1512 A.D., that part of Navarre south of the Pyrenees was seized, when the whole of Spain thus became united under one government.

The most celebrated hero of this period was Don Rodrigo Diaz de Bivar, better known as The Cid, a name derived from "Es-Sayd," or "my Lord," a title said to have been bestowed upon him by several Moorish Kings whom he had taken prisoners, but generously released. The Cid was born about 1026, at his paternal castle of Bivar in Castle, and for his valour, martial genius, patriotism, and eminent success against the Moors in Spain, was celebrated by his countrymen as the model of Christian chivalry. He commenced his military career under Don Ferdinand, Kings of Castile, and was made by Don Sancho, the successor of Ferdinand, generalissimo, whence he derived another title, that of Campeador, by which he is often named by his countrymen. His victories, personal prowess, and romantic adventures, form the theme of many old Spanish ballads. He is

supposed to have died about 1099 A.D.

LESSON 1460.—383a. THE CHRISTIAN PERIOD.—In the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, Christopher Columbus, a Genoese (born 1435, died 1506), an experienced and skilful navigator, having conceived the design of reaching India by a Westward course, offered his services in 1484 to their Majestics of Spain. They hesitated to undertake so great an enterprise. After fruitless applications for 7 years, when, on the point of leaving for France, Isabella was prevailed on to sanction the undertaking. Columbus was then appointed admiral of a small fleet, consisting of three small vessels, manned by 120 sailors. The Santa Maria, the largest vessel, was commanded by Columbus himself, the two smaller, called the Pinta and Nina were commanded by the brothers Pinzon. The fleet sailed from Falos, near Moguer on the Tinto, on Aug. 3, 1492. On Oct. 11 following, one of the Bahamas was discovered, and shortly afterwards, Cuba and Haiti. These were followed by other important discoveries made by him during his 4 voyages, and by other navigators, till the greater part of America became annexed to the dominions of Spain. In his latter days, Columbus was disgracefully neglected, though his children afterwards obtained high homours.

Ferdinand firmly established the royal authority in Spain; but at the same.

Ferdinand firmly established the royal authority in Spain; but at the same time, by allowing the introduction of the Inquisition in 1484, he laid the foundation of a political and religious Despotism which proved the greatest bane to his country. On the death of Isabella in 1506, the crown of Castile devolved by right on her daughter Joanna, wife of Philip, archduke of Austria, and on the death of the latter, on his son Charles lst of Spain, afterwards CHARLES 57H EMPEROR OF GERMANY. Ferdinand died Jan. 1516, after having appointed Cardinal Ximènes regent of Spain till the arrival of his grandson Charles, who was tnen only 16 years of age. Ximenes governed the kingdom with ability till 1518, when Charles assumed the government. In the following year Charles was elected Emperor of Germany. With him commenced the dynasty of the house of Austria in Spain. After a reign of 39 years, he resigned all his Spanish dominiors and the Netherlands to his eldest son Philip 2nd in 1556, and in 1557, restired to a monastery near Placencia in Estremadura, where he died in 1558.

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PHILIP 2ND, 1556 to 1598.—On his accession in 1556, Philip 2nd was the most powerful sovereign in Europe, ruling over Spain, the 17 provinces of the Netherlands, and the wealthy and extensive possessions in the New World. His armies were composed of brave and well-disciplined troops, and commanded by able and were composed of brave and wen-unsupunous words, see the composed of brave and wen-unsupunous words, see that experienced generals. Though actuated by the ambition of his father, he was experienced generals. The had in 1854 greatly inferior to him in valour, activity, and penetration. He had in 1554 married Mary, Queen of England; in 1557, he declared war against France, and gained the victory of St. Quentin on Aug. 10 of the same year. By this and other misfortunes, the French were compelled to sue for peace, which was granted by the treaty of Chateau-Cambresis in April 1559. In 1561, he established courts of the *Inquisition* in every province in Spain, and was himself eye-witness to the burning of 33 Protestants at Valladolid! Having established similar courts in the Netherlands, a Revolt of the Northern Provinces commenced in 1566, by a Confederacy called 'the Beggars,' headed by the Nobles. This ended in the separation of those provinces from the crown of Spain, and their ultimate formation in 1580 into the Dutch Republic; the Independence of which was fully recognised by the European powers by the peace of Westphalia in 1648. In 1567, by the violation of previously granted privileges, a revolt of the Morescoes or Moors in Spain took place, which after immense slaughter was suppressed in 1570. In 1589, his troops under Alva subdued Portugal, of which, and of its dependencies, Philip now became the sovereign. In 1588, with the intention of subjugating England, he fitted out the most formidable fieet that had ever sailed, which the Pope (Sixtus 5th) styled the INVINCIBLE ARMADA, and on which he bestowed his blessing. It was, however, destroyed, partly by storms, and partly by the English and Dutch fleets. Phillip died in Sept. 1588, having earned the character of a cruel bigot, and the unscrupulous supporter the iniquitous assumptions of the papacy.

Philip 3rd, 1598 to 1621.—Philip 3rd, who succeeded his father in 1598, concluded a peace with England in 1604, and an armistice with the Netherlands for 12 years in 1609. By banishing the Moors and Jews from Spain, amounting to nearly 1,000,000 of people, he lost the most industrious and wealthy of his subjects. He died in 1621, and was succeeded by his son Philip 4th, 1621 to 1665. In his reign, Portugal recovered its independence, and placed on the throne a member of the House of Braganza in 1640. In 1648, Philip acknowledged the independence of the Seven United Provinces of Holland; and died in 1665, leaving for his successor his infant son, Charles 2nd, 1665 to 1700. During the minority of Charles, the Queen dowager, Mary Anne of Austria, governed the kingdom. When 18 years of age, the King married a daughter of Philip, duke of Orleans, but died in 1700, without leaving any issue. Charles was the last of the House of Austria.

b. House of Bourbon.—On the death of Charles 2nd, there arose a contest for the crown of Spain, between Charles, archduke of Austria, brother to the Emperor Joseph, and Philip, Duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin and grandson of Louis 14th of France. (Charles claimed in right of his grandmother, Maria Anne, danghter of Philip 8rd; and Philip, in right of his grandmother, Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of Philip 4th, and wife of Louis 14th.) To secure the succession of the archduke Charles and prevent that of Philip (as the latter's accession would render France too powerful), a Grand Alliance was formed of England, Austria, Holland, and other powers. This led to a long and destructive war, called the War of SUCCESSION. On the death of the Emperor Joseph, however, in 1711, and the elevation of Charles to the Imperial Dignity, the aspect of political affairs was completely changed. Charles was now induced to withdraw from the contest, while Philip was confirmed in his claim by the treaty of Utrecht, April 1713. By this treaty Spain ceded Belgrum, Naples, Sicily, and Milan to Austria; Sardina to Savoy; Newfoundland, Nova Bootia, Hudson's Bay, with Minorea and Gibraltar to England. Philip also solemnly penounced his right to the throne of France, while his brothers the Dukes of Berri and Orleans renounced all claims to the crown of Spain.

PHILIP 5781, thus acknowledged King of Spain, was the first of the Bourbon Dynasty. He appointed as his minister, Cardinal Alberoni, the son of a working gardener, a clever but intriguing Italian, who, by attempting to restore the Stuarts to the English throne, and by his warlike preparations, forced England to anticipate his designs, by suddenly attacking and destroying a Spanish Fleet off Cape Passaro, in Ang. 1718. By this decisive step, Philip was compelled to dismiss Alberoni, and make peace with England. Another misunderstanding, however, arose between England and Spain in 1739, in consequence of the former's claiming a right to cut logwood in Central America. This led to a war-

of which the principal event was the capture of Porto Bello by the English, Philip 5th died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand 6th, who died in 1759 without issue. On the death of Ferdinand 6th, his half-brother Charles in 1739 without issue. On the death of Fermiand oid, his hair-protect charles 3rd, then king of the two Sicilies (Naples and Sicily), succeeded, 1759 to 1788. In his reign, THE BOURBON FAMILY COMPACT of 1761 (by which France and Spain mutually agreed to regard for the future, the enemy of either as their common enemy) involved Spain in a new war with England, in which the Spaniards attempted to recover Gibraltar, but failed. The internal administrational content of the spaniards attempted to recover Gibraltar, but failed. the advancement of agriculture and commerce; the restrictions placed on the advancement of agriculture and commerce; the restrictions placed on the Inquisition; and the expulsion of the Jesuits. Still the mass of the people remained in gross ignorance and superstition. Charles 3rd died in 1788, when he was succeeded by his son Charles 4th.

LESSON 141. THE REIGNS OF CHARLES 4TH, FERDINAND 7TH, AND ISABELLA 2ND.

384a. CHARLES 4TH, 1788 to 1808.—The reign of Charles 4th was one of 3844. CHARLES 4TH, 1785 to 1808.—Ine reign or Charles at m was one or the most unfortunate in the annals of Spain, while the court itself was a some of the most disgraceful intrigue and disorder. In 1792, Charles appointed Godoy for his minister, a proud, incompetent, and immoral man. At first, Spain entered with zeal into the war against the French Republic, but was soon compelled to conclude the discreditable peace signed at Basle; by which she contempt needs to be a superior of the constant of the contempt needs. pelled to conclude the discretizable peace signed at Dasie; by which she cateful to France half of St. Domingo. On this occasion, Godoy was contemptuously styled the Prince of the Peace. He next concluded an alliance with France in 1796, and declared war against England, by which Spain lost Trinidad; this was confirmed to England by the treaty of Amien in 1802. In 1801, Spain ceded Louisiana to Napoleon, who sold it in 1803 to the United States.

In the war between Great Britain and France in 1803, Charles purchased per-

mission of Napoleon to remain neutral by a monthly payment of 1,000,000 plastres. Upon this, the British seized in 1804, the Spanish treasure frigates, bearing the products of the American mines to Cadig, and valued at 1,000,000, sterling. Spain then declared war against England. The victory of the British stering, Spanish are decased was against infigured. The victory of the Musical Traffalgar, Oct. 21, 1805, destroyed the Spanish navy; the American Colonies now commenced their efforts for independence; whilst Napoleon required a Spanish army to aid him in Denmark and another in Parma. All

these served to distract and weaken Spain.

In Oct. 1807, a secret treaty was concluded at Fontainebleau, by which Charles surrendered to Napoleon his infant grandson's kingdom of Etruria in Italy, on condition of receiving for him two provinces of Portugal (which were to be conquered), and two other provinces in the same country for a principality for the favourite Godoy. Upon this, a French army was sent into Spain, ostensibly as allied troops, but really for subjugating the whole peninsula. The people, however, suspecting some trescherous plot, suddenly attacked and burnt the palace of Godoy, who only escaped by secreting himself. In March 1808, the imbedile Charles was treacherously persuaded by Godoy to abdicate in favour of Ferdinand. This was only a step in a deeper intrigue. For, in May following, both Charles and his son were decoyed to visit Napoleon at Bayonne, when Charles was compelled formally to abdicate the throne in favour of his "friend and ally," the Emperor Napoleon; while Ferdinand, at the same time, was forced to renounce all claims on the crown of Spain. Napoleon then comwas forced to renounce an cuams on the crown or spain. Napoleon onen compelled his brother Joseph, much against his will, to exchange the crown of Naples for that of Spain. To the old king Charles, a pension of 400,000 francs and a residence were assigned. He died in 1819. Ferdinand was kept under strict surveillance in the house of Talleyrand at Valency in France.

These diagraceful proceedings roused the indignation of the people of Madrid,

who, though unarmed, attacked the French troops quartered in the city, when a terrible slaughter of the inhabitants ensued. No sooner were the events of the capital made known in the provinces than the people took up arms against the invaders. About the same time, an insurrection broke out in Portugal. An alliance between the Spanish and Portuguese nations and Great Britain was then formed, and the Great Peninsular War commenced, which continued till 1814, when Joseph Buonaparte, Napoleon's brother, was hurled from his usurped throne, and the French were driven across the Lyrenees and pursued into France. (For the Military Events of this War, the Student must refer to Lesson **39**, under France, Nos. **181**, **182**.)

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b. Ferdinand 7th. 1814 to 1833.—In 1814, the Bourbon Dynasty was restored in the person of Ferdinand 7th son of Charles 4th. On his accession, Ferdinand promised a new Constitution and Liberty of the Press; yet no sooner was be fully established than he violated his promises and reigned with absolute power. The Inquisition was revived, the Convents restored, the Jesuits recalled and reinstated in all the privileges and property of which they had been deprived in 1767. In this manner the country was governed for several years, till in Jan. 1820, General Riego raised the standard of Revolt, declaring his object was to restore to the nation the Constitution of 1812. Insurrections now sprung up in all quarters in favour of the constitution of the Cortes, and even the royal troops joined the insurgents. In this emergency, Ferdinand was compelled to proclaim the constitution of 1812 to summon the Cortes, and to grant a general amnesty. Till the Cortes could assemble, a Junta of eleven persons was appointed to conduct affairs. In the presence of this body, Ferdinand swore to observe the Constitution. The Inquisition was next abolished; ministers favourable to the constitution were appointed, and the Cortes finally assembled in March, 1820.

Though much was done by the Cortes at this time to heal the wounds of the country, the friends of Absolutism, consisting of the priests, monks, and favourers of the old order of things, raised a powerful party in 1822 to thwat their efforts, and restore things to their former condition. These established themselves in July, 1822, on the frontiers of France and Portugal, raised blished of "soldiers of the faith," as they were termed, and formed a Regency which issued orders, professedly in the name of the "imprisoned King," for the restoration of everything to the state in which it existed before March, 1820. The troops raised by this Regency, however, were defeated by the constitutionalists, and fled into France, in Nov. 1822.

In this disturbed state of the country, an armed Intercentios with regard to Spain was entered into by Russia, Austria, Prussia, and France, to restore Ferdinand to the full enjoyment of soverign power, that he might make such changes freely as might be deemed desirable. Upon this, a French army of 100,000 men, under the Duke of Angoulème, then assembled on the frontier, passed the Bidassoa and entered Spain, in April 1823. The Duke issued a proclamation to the Spaniards, declaring that the object of the French was only to aid them in delivering Spain from the evils of Revolution. A Junta was then formed, which declared the King the sole depositary of sovereign power, and that no change should be recognised except what the king made of his own free choice, and that all the decrees of the Cortes were void.

A long, cruel, and desultory warfare now commenced by the Spanish Constitutional troops under Ballasteros, Mina, and Morillo, against the French and the Absolutists. The Cortes, being strattened from want of means, were unable to make head against their combined enemies. On May 24, 1823, the Duke of Angoulème entered Madrid amid the acclamations of the ignorant and sickle populace, and appointed a Regency. On the other hand, the Cortes also appointed a Regency of 3 members; and, on June 12, departed to Cadis taking the King with them. But the people of Cadis called in the aid of the French, who took possession of the city on Oct. 4th. The Cortes, despairing of ultimate success, had already reinstated the king with absolute power, and requested him to visit, on their behalf, the French camp, which he did, and was there received with regal honours. Ferdinand, now emancipated, declared, as might be expected, all the acts of the co-stitutional government from March 7, 1820, to Oct. 1, 1823, null on the ground that he had been acting under compulsion. On Oct. 22, 1823, the Duke of Angoulème, having accomplished his mission, returned to France, leaving a French force of 45,000 men in Spain till a Spanish army could be properly organised. The Debt incurred by Spain on account of this intervention amounted to \$4,000,000 francs.

Shortly afterwards, Ferdinand entered Madrid in triumph, and the reign of despotism was resumed. Harsh measures were adopted against the partisans of the Cortes; several of the generals, as Mins, Morillo, and some others, were fortunate enough to effect their escape, but Riego was taken and executed.

In 1825, several insurrections took place in favour of Don Carlos, brother of Perdinand, which led to numerous executions. About this time the independence of the American Colonies was recognised by foreign powers. In 1830, on the birth of a royal princess by Maria Christina, the wife of Ferdinand, a royal decree was passed abrogating the Salique Law of Succession, and rendering the crown hereditary in the female line in default of male heirs. By this alternation, Don Carlos, who had hitherto been heir presumptive, was excluded from the

throne. On Sept. 29, 1883, Ferdinand died suddenly, having previously appointed his infant daughter *Isabella* his successor to the throne.

c. ISABELLA 2ND, from 1833 to 1868.—By the will of the late king, his widow, Queen Christina, was appointed Regent till her daughter Isabella attained the age of 18. On the death of Ferdinand, Don Carlos asserted his claim to the throne in virtue of the Salique Law, although it had been repealed. The rights of Isabella 2nd, however, were supported by the Constitutionalists, headed by Espartero, while the claims of Don Carlos were maintained by the Absolutists under the leadership of General Cabrera. After years of civil war and bloodshed (from 1838 to 1840), the party of Isabella 2nd finally prevailed, when Don Carlos took refuge in France in Sept. 1839, and shortly after, in 1840, a general pacification was established.

In 1837 a revised Constitution was proclaimed. In Oct. 1846 the young Queen married her cousin, Don Francisco d'Assiz, duke of Cadis, and her sister, the infanta Louisa, married the duke de Montpensier, son of Louis Philippe. In March 1855, Don Carlos died in France. In this year also, a new Constitution was proposed, which allowed liberty of being, but not of worship. This was partly suspended in 1857, but re-established in 1864. In consequence, however, of continued tyrannical misrule, disgraceful court intrigues, frequent military plots and insurrections, the country was kept in an unsettled state, when a Revolution took place in Oct. 1868, by which Isabella 2nd was driven from the throne, and her family deprived of succession.

d. In Nov. 1870, AMADEUS, Duke of Aosta, second son of Victor Emmanuel, king of Italy, was, by a great majority of the Cortes, appointed King of Spain.

e. A List of Spanish Sovereigns since the Union of Castile and Aragon.

Ferdinand 5	Hou th, "						1512	Charles 3rd
Charles 1st, 1 Philip 2nd	Tous Emp					:	1516 1556	House of Buonaparts. Joseph Buonaparts 1808
Philip 3rd Philip 4th Charles 2nd	:	:	:	:	:	:	1598 1621 1665	Bourbons restored. Ferdinand 7th restored
	How	e of	Bou	rbon		٠		Isabella 2nd 1833
Philip 5th Ferdinand 6	th	:	:	:	:	:	1700 1746	House of Savoy. Amadeus 1870

LESSON 142 .- PORTUGAL.

- 385a. Physical.—Extent, &c.—Portugal (anc. Lusitania) lies on the West of Spain. Length from N. to S., 368 miles; Breadth, from 80 to 140 miles; Area, exclusive of the Islands, 36,501 sq. miles; Pop., exclusive of the Islands, 3,987, 867; with the Islands, 4,436,925. Cap. Lisson.
- b. Bays and Estuaries.—Bays of Aveiro, Setubal, and Lagos; the Estuaries of Minho, Douro, Mondego, Tagus, and Guadiāna.
- c. Chief Islands are—the Azōres (of which the principal are St. Mary, St. Michael, Terceira). Area of the whole 715 sq. miles; Pop. 251,894; Cap. ANGRA. Madeira Isles.—Area, 317 sq. miles; Pop. 111,764; Cap. FUNCHAL. Cape Verde Islands.—Area, 1,650 sq. miles; Pop. 85,400; Cap. MINDELLO.
 - d. Capes.-Rocca, Espichel, St. Vincent, and St. Maria.
- 286a. Surface. Portugal is traversed by several mountain ranges extending into Spain, and by others peculiar to itself, which inclose several elevated plains gradually declining westward towards

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the coast. The largest *Plain* is in Alemtejo, S. of the Tagus. Near the coast are numerous salt marshes. In the North are extensive *Forests* of oak; in the centre of chestnuts; and in the S. of sea-pine and cork.

- b. The chief Mountain Ranges are—Sier'ra d' Estrella (7,524 ft.), and de Monchique (sheek), a continuation of the Sierra Morena.
- c. The Rivers are—Minho (meen-yo), Douro (doo'-rō), Tāgus, and Guadiāna. In Portugal there are no Lakes, but several Marshes.
- 387a. Climate.—The Climate on the whole is healthy, especially on the elevated parts of the coast and on the high grounds in the interior. In the valleys, however, and near the salt marshes, the heat during summer is excessive and unhealthy.
- b. The mean Annual Temperature at Coimbra is 63°, at Lisbon 61° Fahr. c. The Rainfall is abundant on the West Coast, especially in Autumn.
- 388a. Soil, &c.—The Soil is light but rich, and very favourable to the cultivation of the grape and other fine fruits.
- b. Minerals.—The chief Minerals are iron, marble, copper, lead, coal, and salt. Tin and antimony are known to exist. The Mines in Portugal were long neglected, as those in Brasil were deemed much more valuable. But recently an improvement has taken place in the quicksilver, lead, coal, and iron departments. There are many Mineral Springs in the country. c. The wild Animals are the wolf, boar, goat, and deer.
- 389. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Portugal was formerly divided into 6 provinces; these are now subdivided into 17, each of which is named from its chief town. In the following List are given the Old Provinces, and the chief towns which form the capitate of the respective subdivisions.

Old Provinces.	8q. Miles.	New Prove. with their Caps.
1. Minho 2. Tras-os-Montes 3. Beira	2,671 4,065 8,586 8,834 10,255 2,090 36,501	Oporto, 80: Braga, 16; Viana, 3. Villa-Real, 5; Braganza, 3. (Colmbra, 15; Vizen, 7; Areira, 5; Castello-Branco, 6; Guarda, 2. LISBON, 275; Santarem, 8; Leira, 2. Portalegre, 6; Evora, 18; Beja, 5. Faro, 8.

- **390**a. Industrial Pursuits. Agriculture. Agriculture is greatly neglected, very many districts being almost uncultivated; and even where attention is paid to cultivation, the processes adopted are very rude. The cultivation of the vine forms the most important branch of industry.
- b. Chief Products.—In the high grounds are raised the usual crops of more northern latitudes, wheat, barley, oats, flax, &c.; in those of warmer temperature, vines, maise, figs, oranges, and lemons are grown, and in the low grounds rice.
- c. Of domestic Animals, cattle, sheep, goats, and hogs, are reared in considerable numbers. Mules and asses are the chief beasts of burden.
- 391a. Manufactures, &c.—Though some progress has recently been made in the useful arts and manufactures in Portugal, yet these are only in their infancy. A little linen, silk, and coarse

woollens, straw-work, earthenware, glass, and fire-arms, constitute their principal manufactures.

- b. Commerce.—The Commerce which once formed the greatness of Portugal, when her ports interchanged the products of the East and the West, is now a mere shadow. The loss of her Indian possessions, and the separation of Brazil, have reduced her to the common routine of export and import. The principal Exports consist of Port, Lisbon, and Calcavella wines, oils, oranges, lemons, wool, cotton, cork, salt, tanned hides, and vinegar. The amount of the Exports to Great Britain in 1888 was 2,258,000l. The chief Import are colonial produce, cotton, woollen and linen goods, hardware, earthenware, corn, rice, butter, cheese, dried fish, timber, hemp, and fax. The amount of Imports from Great Britain in 1888 was 1,554,000l. c. The ordinary Reads, formerly wretched, have been much improved. Since 1854, about 600 miles of Railway have been opened. A. The other Ports are Lisbon, Oporto, and Setubal.
- 392a. Social Condition.—Government, &c.—The Government is a limited hereditary Monarchy, with the succession unrestricted to sex. The Legislative Power is vested in the Sovereign and the Cortes. The Cortes are divided into two chambers, one called the Chamber of Peers, named by the Sovereign for life; and the other the Chamber of Deputies, appointed by citizens having an income of 22l. per annum. The King has no veto on a law passed twice by both houses. The Executive is vested in the King and seven responsible Ministers. The present King (1871) is Luis 1st, the son of Queen Maria 2nd and of Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.
- b. The Revenue in 1869 was 3,757,000L; the Expenditure was about 5,120,000L. The Public Debt amounted to 59,330,000L. c. The Army is raised purtly by conscription, and partly by voluntary enlistment, and amounted in 1869 to 18,180 men in Portugal, and 8,236 men in the Colonies. The Navy for the same year had 47 vessels of various kinds, manned by 3,490 sailors.
- 393a. Religion.—The established Religion is the Roman Catholic; the church is governed by the Patriarch of Lisbon, 2 Archbishops, and 14 Bishops. There are 3,769 parishes, each under a resident priest. Protestants and Jews are merely tolerated under severe restrictions, and several cases of harsh treatment have recently occurred.
- b. The Inquisition was abolished in 1821, most of the Conventual establishments were suppressed in 1834, and the revenues appropriated to the state. A few convents, however, still remain. The clergy are now maintained by the government.
- 394a. Education, &c.—Education, which was made compulsory in 1844, is under the management of the Government, and entirely free from any control of the priests. It is, however, in a low state. In 1862, there was one scholar to every 36 inhabitants.
- b. Scientific and Literary Institutions, and even common Libraries, are almost exclusively confined to Lisbon, Coimbra, and Oporto. There is only one University, that of Coimbra, founded in 1808. There are also in the country about 182 lyceums to impart secondary instruction. Camoens, author of a poem called the Lusiad, is the most celebrated of the Portuguese poets.
- c. Language.—The Language of Portugal is merely a dialect of the Spanish, differing but little more from the latter than Scotch from English. The Pronunciation is said to be difficult for a foreigner, more particularly the nasal sounds in which it abounds.

LESSON 143 .- 395. The People, Manners, &c .- The modern Portuguese, in general, retain little of the adventurous spirit which rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. Idleness, treachery, a passion for revenge, and other bad qualities are imputed to them. Among the lower classes, thieving is very commonly practised. Their habits are filthy in the extreme, and the morals of both sexes are very lax. Many of these vicious characteristics are, no doubt, to be attributed to the stupefying influence of a long course of misrule, the observance of childish and unprofitable religious ceremonies, and the want of a Scriptural education.

- 396. Foreign Possessions.—1. In Africa. Off the West Coast: The Azores, the Cape Verde Islands, and Madeira. In West Africa: Some settlements in Senegambia, with the islands of St. Thomas and Principe in the Gulf of Guinea. In South-West Africa: Angola, Benguela, and Mossamedes. In East Africa: Mozambique and several stations on the East coast.
- 2. In Asia. Goa, Salsete, Bardes, &c. Daman and Diu in Hindostan; Macão near Canton in China, and some settlements in the islands of Timor, Solor, and Mindoro, in the Pacific. Formerly, the Colonial Possessions of Portugal were much more extensive than at present, having lost *Brazii* in 1822, and at various times, several districts both in East and West Africa and the West of Hindostan.

397. PROVINCES, CHIEF TOWNS, ISLANDS, &c.

of the Tejo or Tagus, p. 348,155. Algarve' (or the West), a prov. in the S. of

Portugal, p. 179,523.

Almaden', in Estremadura, near which is the gold mine Adissa, p. 4.

Almēida (ai-mā-t-dah), in Beira, a fortified

town, p. 6. Avēira (a-vā-ē-ro), in Beira, a seaport with

great trade, p. 5.

Azōres, near the West coast of Africa consisting of 9 isles. Ar. 715 sq. m., of Ar. 715 sq. m., of volcanic origin, subject to earthquakes, very fertile, climate temperate and healthy, p. 252,000. Cap. Angra, p. 14. Betra (bd.e-rah) or "the border," a large

prov. p. 1,286,637.
Bra'ga, in Entre Douro e Minho, an anc. city, manf. of fire-arms, p. 19.
Bragan'za, in Tras-os-Montes, the native place of the reigning family of Portu-

gal, an anc. town, manf. of velvet, &c., p. 5. Cape Verde Islands.

ape Verde Islands. Ar. 1,650 sq. m., p. 85,000, climate hot, soil fertile, great want of water.

Castello-Branco, in Beira, a strong town,

Chav'es, in Tras-os-Montes, noted for its

mineral waters, p. 6.
Cintra, in Estremadura, noted for a convention between the French and English generals in 1808, which allowed the French to retire from Portugal un-

molested, p. 2.
Coimbra, in Beira, seat of a univers.,
manf. of linens, woollens, &c., p. 18.

Alemtejo (a-leng-tā zho), a large prov. S. | El'vas, in Alemtejo, an important strong-

hold, manf. of arms, p. 11. Estremadura (extrema-dora, the extreme

DESIGNATION OF THE ACTION OF THE STATE OF TH

harbour, p. 7.
Lisbon (anc. Olistpo), in Estremadura,
cap. of Portugal, well situated on severai hills, grt. part destroyed by an earthquake in 1755, p. 275.

Madéira Isles, in the Atlantic, p. 111,000, climate variable, and exposed to a hot, dry wind, soil very fertile, Cap. Fusions.

chal,
Minho (meen-yo), a prov. between the
Douro and Minho, p. 951,770.
Oporto, or "the Port," in Minho, noted
for its wine called "port," the chief
manf. city in Portugal, p. 86.
Santarem (anc. Scalabis), in Estremadura,

with some trade, p. 8.
Setübal (sa-too'-bal), or St. Ubes, in Estremadura, a seaport, trade in fruita, sait,

&c., p. 15. Torres Vedras (tor-ras-Va-dras), in Estre-

madura, fam. for the military lines formed by Wellington in 1810, p. 2.

Tras-os-Montes (tras-os-mong'-tes), "be-yond the mountains;" that is, beyond the Sierra d'Estrella, a prov., pop. 385.896.

Vimeira (ve-mě-d-ra), in Estremadura, fam. for the vict. gained by Wellington over the French on Aug. 21, 1808.

LESSON 144.—398a. History.—The oldest inhabitants of Portugal were the Celts and Iberians. Under the Romans, the country formed the greater part of the province of *Lusitania*. The Romans were succeeded by the Visigoths, and these by the Arabs or Moors. About 1095, Alphonso 6th of Castile, having wrested some districts in the North from the Moors, conferred them on his son-in-law, Henry of Besançon, of the house of Burgundy, with the hereditary title of Count. In 1139, Alphonso, son of Henry, having gained a great victory over the Moors on the plain of Ourique in Alemtejo, assumed the title of King. The male line of the House of Burgundy reigned as Kings over Portugal from 1139 to 1383. In that year, Ferdinand 1st, the son and successor of Pedro 1st, died, leaving only a damphter. Beatriz.

b. On the death of Ferdinand without male issue, Don John, an illegitimate son of King Pedro 1st, and grand master of the order of Avis, was made Regent, and two years afterwards, in 1886, was declared King by the assembled States at Coimbra, to the prejudice of Henry, son of Beatrix, the lawful heir to the Portuguese throne. With Don John (John 1st) begins the native line of the Portuguese princes who originated the foreign conquests and voyages of discovery. His son Henry, surnamed the Navigator, commenced those enterprises of discovery and commerce which raised Portugal above contemporary states. John 1st also greatly improved the internal administration of the kingdom, and was succeeded by his son Eduardo, who died of the plague at Tomar, and was succeeded by his infant son Alphonos 5th. In Alphonos'e reign, maritime discovery was ardently prosecuted, and the Azores, Madeiras, Canaries, and Cape Verde Islands were either discovered or colonised. On the death of Alphonos 5th In 1481, John 2nd succeeded, and carried maritime discovery to its highest pitch. In his reign, Bartholomev Diuz discovered in 1487 the Southern Cape of Africa, called from the great expectations which it raised, the Cape of Good Hope.

John 2nd died in 1495, and was succeeded by his cousin Manoel, who pursued the career of maritime discovery. About 1497, Vasco de Gama with a feet of 5 vessels effected the passage to India, and returned to Lisbon Sept. 1499. In this reign also Brazil was discovered, and establishments formed on the West coast of Hindostan. John 3rd succeeded his father Manoel in 1521, and extended the Indian discoveries and commerce. In 1536, he unfortunately was induced to establish the Inquisition in Portugal, at first intended only against the Jews, whom it either exterminated or drove from the country. He afterwards admitted the Jesuits into Portugal, and was the first European monarch who permitted them to enter his dominions. John died in 1557, and was succeeded by his grandson Sebastian. Sebastian fell in the battle of Alcazar in 1578, when fightling against the Moors in Africa, and was succeeded by his uncle, Cardinat Henry, who died in 1580.

- c. On the death of Cardinal Henry in 1580, the male line of the Royal family became extinct, when Philip 2nd of Spain seized the opportunity of conquering the kingdom and annexing it to Spain. The Spanish sovereigns who reigned over Portugal were Philip 2nd 1580, Philip 3rd 1590, Philip 4th from 1623 to 1640. During this period, the Portuguese were heavily oppressed, their foreign possessions neglected, and Brazil and other places seized by the Dutch.
- d. In 1640, the Portuguese succeeded in throwing off the Spanish yoke, and in placing on the throne John, Duke of Braganza (John Ath), a descendant by the female side of the old Royal family. This led to a protracted war with Spain, which continued during the reign of John and of his son and successor, Alphonso 6th, till 1688, when it was terminated by a treaty of peace, and the restoration of all her colonial possessions to Portugal. John 4th, the first King of the House of Braganza, died in 1656, and was succeeded by his son Alphonso 6th, in whose reign the Dutch restored to Portugal Brazil, which they had seized in 1620. Alphonso 6th died in 1638, and was succeeded by his brother Pedro 2nd, who took part with the allies against Philip 5th of Spain. In 1703, the first Connectial Treaty was concluded between England and Portugal, which secured to England the newly-discovered mines in Brazil. John 5th succeeded his father Pedro 2nd in 1706, and reigned till 1750, when his son Joseph 1st ascended the throne. In his reign, a dreadful earthquake occurred, Nov. 1, 1755, which destroyed the greater part of Libbon. In 1787, the Jesuits were deprived of the post of Confessors to the Royal family, and in 1789 their estates were confiscated and they themselves expelled from the kingdom. Joseph 1st died in 1777.

On the death of Joseph 1st, in 1777, his daughter Maria Francisca Isabella succeeded, and, by a dispensation of the Pope, married her uncle, who died in 1786. During her reign, the power remained chiefly in the hands of an ignorant nobility and an ambitious priesthood. In 1789, on account of a serious indisposition of the queen, her cldest son, John Maria Joseph, Prince of Brazil (the title of Prince Royal till 1816), was declared Regent; and after the queen's malady had terminated in mental imbedlity, the prince was declared Regent with full Regal power as John 6th. In consequence of John's refusal in 1807 to comply with the demand of Napoleon 1st to seize the British merchandise in his dominions, General Junot entered the country with a large army. The Regent

now put himself under the protection of the English, and in Nov. 1807 embarked with all his court for Brazil. Junot entered Lisbon on the following day, and Portugal was in every respect treated as a conquered country. This led to the Great Peninsular War, already described under France. (See Lesson 39, No. 181.) On the death of his mother Maria Isabella, John 6th was called to the throne of Portugal, which he occupied conjointly with that of Brazil, where he continued to reside. In Aug. 1820, an intense desire for greater liberty manifested itself in Portugal as it had in Spain. The result was a Revolution, in which the citizens and soldiers acted in concert. In Sept. following, a Constitution was proclaimed, and the cessation of the former absolute rule. A Provisional Government was established with Count Palmella at the head. Palmella was then despatched to Rio Janeiro to inform King John of what had assed, with a request that either he or his son, Don Pedro, would return to Lisbon. The Cortes having assembled in 1821, various laws were passed, establishing freedom of person and property, liberty of the press, legal equality, the abolition of privileges, and the admission of citizens to all offices. In July 1821, John 6th sailed for Portugal, but was not permitted to land till he had given his consent to several acts restricting his power. "On landing, he swore to observe the new Constitution, and concurred in all the succeeding acts of the Cortes. In 1823, Don Miguel, the king's second son, with the assistance of several noblemen, raised a strong opposition against the new order of things, which prevented the promulgation of a liberal and well-digested Charter. In April 1824, Miguel surrounded the king's palace with soldiers from the garrison, to prevent any access of his servents to him, and also imprisoned some of the ministers. Upon this, the foreign ambassadors urged the king to take refuge on board an English man-of-war then in the Tagus. The advice was at once adopted. The King was then enabled, with the assistance of the whole diplomothers to make the control of the whole diplomothers the control of the whole diplo matic corps, to re-establish his authority, and summon Miguel into his presence. Miguel obeyed, and, as an excuse, declared that his measures had been adopted solely to frustrate a conspiracy which had been formed against the life of the king and queen. This explanation was accepted, and the royal pardon granted, with permission to Miguel to travel. On May 14, the King returned on shore, and early in June, proclaimed an amnesty for the adherents of the Cortes of 1820. In 1825, after many negotiations, the Independence of Recoil was accepted. In 1825, after many negotiations, the *Independence of Brasil* was acknowledged by King John, who merely retained the Imperial Title. In March 1826, John 6th died, after having named his sister, the Infanta Isabella, regent for his son and successor, Don Pedro 4th, who now became King of Portugal and Emperor of

e. Isabella governed the kingdom for a short time in the name of her nephew, Don Pedro 4th. On April 23, 1826, Don Pedro granted a Constitution which established two chambers. On May 2 he abdicated the Portuguese throne in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria 2nd (da Gioria). Don Miguel, the uncle of the young queen, swore fealty at Vienna on Oct. 4, 1826, but soon afterwards raised a Civil War. In Dec. 1827, Miguel's party so far prevailed that he was made Regent, and on July 4, 1828, assumed the title of King, while Donna Maria was compelled to take refuge in London in Oct. 1828. In this emergency, Don Pedro took decisive measures to establish the claims of his daughter, by raising troops and equipping a suitable fleet under Admiral Napier. With these forces he took possession of Terceira in the name of Donna Maria in April 1832, of Oporto on July 10, and afterwards repulsed the Miguellies who had attempted to recover Oporto, Sept. 19; while Admiral Napier either took or destroyed Miguel's fleet off Cape St. Vincent, July 2, 1833. After several other conflicts, Don Miguel was compelled in May 1834, to capitulate, and to sign a convention at Evora, by which he was permitted to leave Portugal and embark for Genoa. He subsequently married princess Adelaide of Lowenstein-Rosenburg, and died Nov. 1866. On the expulsion of Miguel, Donna Maria was firmly established on the throne, and her father declared Regent. Among the first acts of his administration were the suppression of the monastic establishments, the partial abolition of paper money, and the formation of a metallic currency. Shortly afterwards, in consequence of failing health, Don Pedro resigned the regency Sept. 15, 1834, when the young Queen was declared of age, and assumed the full exercise of Royal authority. Don Pedro died Sept. 24, following.

In Jan. 1835, Donna Maria married Duke Augustus of Leuchtenburg, who died in March following. In April 1836, she married her second husband, Prince Ferdinand of Saxr-Coburg-Gotha. In 1846 an insurrection broke out, which, after several conflicts, was suppressed in 1847. In Nov. 1833, Donna Maria died, and was succeeded by her eldest son, Don Pedro 5th, who was born Sept. 16, 1837,

and died Nov. 11, 1861. On the death of Pedro 5th, his brother Luis 1st, the present (1872) king, succeeded, born Oct. 1, 1838, married Oct. 6, 1862, Maria Pia, the youngest daughter of Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy.

f. List of Portuguese Sovereigns since the accession of the House of Braganza.

1860. John 4th. 1855. Alphonso 6th. 1863. Pedro 3nd. 1706. John 5th. 1750. Joseph 1st. 1777. Maria 1st and Pedro 3rd. 1786. Maria 1st alone. 1796. John Joseph, Regent. 1816. John 6th.

House of Braganza-Coburg.

1826. Pedro 4th. 1826. Maria 2nd. 1828. Miguel 1st. 1834. Maria 2nd restored.

1853. Pedro 5th. 1861. Luis 1st.

LESSON 145 .- KINGDOM OF ITALY.

399a. Physical.—Extent, &c.—Italy (anc. Italia) is a large Peninsula, in shape resembling a high-heeled boot. The Length from the Alps to Cape Spartivento is about 750 miles; the Breadth varies from 330 m. in the N. to 100 m. in the Centre, and 15 m. in the extreme South. The Area of the Kingdom of Italy, including the Pope's late dominions, San Marino, and the islands of Sardinia and Sicily, is 112,852 sq. miles. Total Pop. 24,972,962. The present Cap. Rome; the late Cap. Florence.

The Area of San Marino is 26 sq. m.; Pop. 7,080; Cap. San Marino.

- b. Seas and Gulfs.—Gulf of Genoa, Mediterranean Sea, Gulf of Gaeta (gâh-ā-tah), Bay of Naples, Gulfs of Salerno, Policastro, and St. Euphemia, Squillace (skwe-lâh'-tche), Taranto, and Manfredonia, Adriatic Sea, Gulfs of Venice and Trieste. In Sicily—Gulf of Castel-a-Mare, and Bays of Palermo and Syracuse. In Sardinia—Gulf of Cagliari.
- c. Straits.—Strait of Messina, between Sicily and the toe of Italy; Otranto, between the heel of Italy and Turkey; and Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia.
- d. Islands.—Sardinia, near to which are Caprera and several small islands; Elba and several small isles; the Ponza Islands, Ischia and Capri; Sicily and the Lipari Islands. Malta and Gozo belong to England.
- e. Capes.—Argentaro, Circello, Licosa, Palinuro, Vaticano, Spartivento, Nau or Colonna, and Leuca. In Sicily—St. Vito and Passaro. In Sardinia—Comino, Carbonara, and Spartivento.
- **4.00**a. Surface.—The Surface of Italy is the most finely diversified, perhaps, of any country in the world. It has the loftiest mountains and most beautiful plains in Europe. The Alps surround the North. In the centre from N. to S. run the Apennines, on the lower slopes of which may be seen the vine and the clive; and higher up, the various trees of the forest. Many of the valleys are truly delightful and in high cultivation.
- b. Mountains.—The Alps (which are subdivided into the Maritime, or those parallel to the Mediterranean N. of Genoa; the Cottian, between France and Italy; the Graian, between Savoy and Italy; the Pennine and Lepontine, between Switzerland and Italy; and the Rhatian, between Austria and Italy; the best-known peaks are Monte Viso, 12,580 ft.; Mont Cenis, 11,500 ft.; Mont Blanc, 15,744 ft; Monte Rosa, 15,151 ft.; and the Stelvio Pass, 9,100 ft. The Apennines run from N. to S. The Volcanoes are Vesuvius, near Naples, 3,932 ft; Etna, in Sicily, 10,874 ft.; and Stromboli, 2,500 ft., one of the Lipari Isles.

A Tunnel, 8 miles in length, has recently been made under Mt. Conis, connecting France with Italy, and was opened to the public on Sept. 17, 1871. This stupendous undertaking, planned and executed by an Italian Engineer, Signor Grattoni, occupied 14 years in c mpletion, and is one of the greatest achievements in modern science.

- c. Plains.—There are three extensive Plains:—1. The Plain of Lombardy, which is about 250 miles long by from 50 m. to 120 m. broad. 2. The next great plain stretches from Pisa in Tuscany to the borders of Naples. 3. The third great plain is that of Capitanata, in Naples, on the shores of the Adriatic.
- d. Rivers.—The Po (its chief tributaries are the Ticino (chee-no), Adda, Oglio, and Mincio); the Adige and Tagliamento; the Tiber and Arno (with the Rubico, now Fiumicino, a small but celebrated river); the Volturno and the Garigliano.
- e. The Lakes are—Garda (183 sq. m.), Maggiore (152 sq. m.), Lugāno, Como (66 sq. m.), Iseo (e-sā-o), Perugia (roo-jah), Bolsena, and Bracciano.
- 401a. Climate.—The Climate of Italy varies according to the situation of the different provinces and the prevailing Winds. The prevailing winds are the West and South-West, during which the air is dry and healthy. In the Northern Provinces, in the valley of the Po, and in the provinces on the N.-E. side of the Apennines, the air is temperate and healthy. In Winter, frosts and snows are here of common occurrence. In Southern Italy, including Tuscany, the late Papal States, and Naples, Summer is very warm and Winter short and mild. The air of the Campagna di Roma (in the South of which are the well-known Pontine Marshes), and the Maremna, on the S.-W. of Tuscany, is unhealthy, arising from the want of cultivation and drainage. In the Neapolitan provinces, the heat during summer is excessive; and its effect is rendered peculiarly oppressive by a sultry wind, called the Sirocco, which, blowing from the sultry regions of Africa, arrests vegetation, and renders the human frame languid and feeble.
- b. The Temperature is also affected by the proximity of the mountains or of the sea. The Mean annual Temperature of Milan is 55°, of Turin 53°, of Fibrence 59°, of Bome 60°, of Naples 59° Fab. Snow lies prepetually on the Alps at an elevation of 9,500 ft. c. The Rains fall less frequently than in more Northern Latitudes, but at particular seasons, with great violence. The Rainfall at Genoa is 55 inches, at Milan 37 inches, at Rome 39 inches.
- **402.** Soil, &c.—The Soil is in general very fertile, producing all the comforts and luxuries of life in abundance.
- b. Minerals.—Italy though rich in minerals has few metals, except iron and lead. Sulphur, borax, salt, nitre, alum, alabaster, and lava are abundant. The Apennines supply the finest marble. c. The wild Animals are the wolf, fox, lynx, stag, marmot, and badger, and in the South, the wild boar. Among the venomous reptiles are the asp, common viper, and tarantula.

LESSON 146 .- POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

403a. From 1815 to 1859, Italy was politically divided into the following States:—

	States.					Capitals.
1.	Kingdom of Sardinia					Turin.
2.	Austrian Lombardy and Venetia					Milan, Venice.
	Papal States					Rome.
4.	Kingdom of Naples and Sicily, or	The	Two	Sici	lies	Naples, Palermo.
5.	Grand Duchy of Tuscany .					Florence.
6,	Duchies of Parma and Modena		•			Parma, Moděna.
8.	Republic of San Marino .					San Marino.
9.	Principality of Mon'aco .					Monăco.

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b. In 1859, Victor Emmanuel, king of Sardinia, with the aid of Napoleon 3rd, Emperor of the French, wrested Lombardy from Austria, Romagna from the Pope's dominions, and the duchies of Parma and Modena from their princes.

The two last form the modern province of *Enulia*.

In 1860, the Grand Duchy of *Tuscany* was, by the will of the people, annexed to the kingdom of Sardinia; and in Dec. 1860, the Marches and Umbria having been wrested from the Pope, and the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily conquered by Gen. Garibaldi and transferred by him to the King of Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel was from that time styled King of Italy, In 1866, the Austrians were compelled to code Venetia to the Kingdom of Italy, which, by this cession, included the whole country, except 1. the small territory governed by the Pope, and 2. the Republic of San Marino.

In Nov. 1870, the remaining Papal Territory, with its capital Rome, was conquered and annexed to the Kingdom of Italy, thus completing the unification

of the whole country.

In 1860, Savoy and Nice, formerly parts of the Sardinian monarchy, were ceded to France by the King of Italy, in consideration for the aid rendered to him by the French Emperor. The principality of Monaco was also annexed to France by purchase.

LESSON 147.—404a. MODERN DIVISIONS.—The arrangement of the Modern Kingdom of Italy has superseded the former petty monarchies by a division of provinces named after the chief towns. The number of these modern To the above must now be added the provinces included in the late papel dominions, namely, 1. Rome and the Comarca; 2. Viterbo; 8. Civita Vecchia; 4. Velletri: 5. Frosinone.

b. The following Table includes the old Historical Provinces with the modern subdivisions. The pop. of the towns in thousands is annexed to each:—

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Old Provinces.
                                                            New Provs. with Caps. of the same name.
                                              1. Turin, 180; 2. Novara, 27; 3. Cuneo, 21; 4. Alessandria, 54; 5. Porto Maurizio, 6.
1. Pledmont
                                             Genos, 120.
2. Genoa .

    1. Milan, 219; 2. Pavia, 25; 3. Como, 21; 4. Bergamo,
    1. Milan, 219; 2. Pavia, 25; 3. Como, 21; 4. Bergamo,
    1. Venice, 118; 2. Padua, 53; 3. Udine, 35; 4. Beiluno,
    10; 5. Treviso, 32; 6. Vicenza, 33; 7. Verona, 59;
    8. Mantua, 30; 9. Rovigo, 10.

2 Lombardy
 4. Venetia
5. Emilia comprises the former duchies of Parma and Modena-
                                               1. Parma, 46; 2. Piacenza, 30; 3. Modēna, 32;
4. Reggio-Emilla, 16.
[1. Bologna, 75; 2. Ferrara, 26; 3. Ravenna, 21;
4. Forli, 16.
6. Romagna .
                                               (1. Florence, 114; 2. Pisa, 33; 3. Lucca and Massa, 22
                                             . { 4. Leghorn, 83; 5. Arezzo, 11; 6. Siena, 22; 7. Grosseto, 2. { 1. Ancona, 31; 2. Pesaro, 10; 3. Macerato, 10; . { 4. Ascoll, 11; 5. Perugia, 14.
 7. Tuscany
 8. The Marches
 9. Umbria
10. The Neapolitan Provinces comprise-
 East—1. The three Abruzzi . 1. Aquila, 12; 2. Chieti, 13; 3. Teramo, 14.
2. Molise . . . Campobasso, 13.
2. Molise
2. Molise
3. Capitanata
4. Bari
5. Lavoro
6. Naples
7. The two Principati
1. Selerno, 21; 2. Benevento, 16; 3. Avellino, 13.

Lecce, 17 (in this prov. are Gaeta and Capua).

Detenza, 15.

Potenza, 15.

Potenza, 15.

Potenza, 17; 3. Reggio, 15.
Bouth-8. Otranto
         Late Papal States . { 1. Rome and the Comarca; 2. Viterbo; 3. Civita-
Vecchia; 4. Velletri; 5. Frosinone.
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LESSON 148.—405a. INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS.—Agriculture, \$c.-This varies in the different provinces. In Piedmont, Lomherdy, on the plains of the Po, Arno, and Gerigliano, the land is diligently irrigated and cultivated. In these parts the agricultural produce, after supplying a dense population, affords a surplus for export. In most of the other districts of Italy, however, from the indolence of a large proportion of the inhabitants, the natural fertility of the soil is not sufficiently improved.

- b. The chief Products are the vine, clives, the finest fruits, wheat, and other cereals; and also oranges, lemons, &c., in abundance. A great impetus has recently been given to the cultivation of cotton, the sugar-cane, and the rearing of silk-worms. Certain districts are noted for the cultivation of particular products; thus, in Piedmont and Lombardy, the chief occupations of the people are the cultivation of corn, rice, the mulberry tree, and the rearing of the silk-worm; in Tuscany, the culture of the clive; and in the Neapolitan provinces, the growth of the vine and other fruits. c. Great numbers of cattle, sheep, and goats are reared in all parts of Italy. d. The soils of Sicily and Sardinia are very rich, producing the finest wheat and excellent wine.
- **406a.** Manufactures, &c. The Manufactures of Italy, once remarkable for their elegance and variety, are now much decayed, presenting only specimens on a small scale of what formerly existed. The principal manufactures of the present day are carried on in Piedmont, Lombardy, and Tuscany. Of these the most important are coarse woollens and linens, silks, velvet, gauze, porcelain, artificial flowers, straw hats, paper, parchment, leather, glass, and musical instruments.
- b. Commerce.—The Commerce of Italy was once very extensive, when her ships covered the Mediterranean, and her merchants were her nobles and princes. After years of depression, it is in some measure reviving. The chief Exports consist at present almost entirely of raw produce—silk, olive-oil, marble, wines, hemp, barilla, cotton, wool, skins, madder, linseed, potash, wax, almonds, raisins, oranges, lemons, with rags, Parmesan cheese, and straw hats. The coasts of Sicily supply sponges and corais. The amount of Exports untaly to Great Britain in 1869 was 3,998,160t. The chief Imports are—colonial produce; as, tea, sugar, coffee, &c.; linen, woollen, and cotton fabrics, machinery, corn, indigo, jewellery, and dried fish. The Imports from Great Britain in 1869 amounted to 7,239,0001.
- c. The Roads in the North of Italy are in general excellent; many of the old Roman roads are in good preservation; but most of the roads in Naples and the late Papal dominions are wretched. The Canals constructed during the period of the glory of Italy are numerous and valuable, though not much employed for commercial purposes. Of Railways, 847 miles were in operation in 1862. d. The Chief Ports are—Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, Ancona, Venice, and Civita-Vecchia; in Sicily—Palermo, Messina, Marsala; in Sardinia—Cagliari.
- **407**a. Social Condition.—Government, &c.—The whole of Italy is now combined into one kingdom, under the house of Savoy, with a Constitutional Limited Monarchy, in which the representative system is fully adopted. The Executive is vested in the King, who acts through nine responsible ministers. The Legislative power is shared between the King and Parliament, consisting of two chambers, one of Senators nominated by the King for life, and the other of Deputies, each above 30 years of age, elected by citizens above 25 years of age, and paying taxes to the amount of 1l. 12s. annually. Neither Senators nor Deputies receive any remuneration for their services.
- b. The Brigandage, originated and maintained by the expelled Bourbons of Naples, though materially checked, is not yet suppressed in the Southern provinces.

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- c. The estimated Revenue in 1868 was 31,155,000L; the Expenditure. 39,918,000L; the Public Debt, 251,000,000L d. The Army of Italy is raised by conscription. According to law, a certain number of young men of the age of 21 are annually levied for the standing army, while the rest are entered in the army of reserve. On the peace establishment of 1869, the Army amounted to 183,000 men; in war to 445,000. The Navy in 1869, amounted to 99 vessels of war, manned by 18,214 sailors and marines.
- d. The Poor.—Under the old Governments, no parochial aid was granted to the poor. They lived either by begging, stealing, brigandage, or on the alms of the charitable. Italy, indeed, though possessing one of the richest soils, was, under the former governments, infested by swarms of filthy, idle, and clamorous beggars.
- 408a. Religion.—The established Religion throughout Italy is the Roman Catholic; but, under the new Italian Constitution, other religions are now tolerated under certain restrictions. Efforts are being made, and with marked success, to spread the blessings of pure Christianity in most of the Italian cities. The superstitious ceremonies, hitherto practised under the name of religion, have never influenced the human mind for any rational or useful purpose.
- b. There are in Italy 45 Archbishops, 198 Bishops, and a great number of priests. In 1866, the Government enacted a law for the suppression of all religious houses throughout the kingdom, and the transfer of their property, partly to the state and partly to the purposes of education. This law has, with only a few exceptions, been carried out.
- 409a. Education.—In Education, Italy, with the exception of Piedmont and Lombardy, has been one of the most neglected countries in Europe. The branches taught even to the higher classes were not adapted either for social improvement or modern usefulness. So late as 1860, there were in Naples and Sicily 3,094 large parishes, in which there was no school whatever. The attention of the present Government, however, has since 1860 been earnestly directed to remedy these evils, by establishing elementary schools in every parish in the kingdom, and introducing a better system. A great part of the confiscated ecclesiastical property has been applied to the purposes of education.
- b. The former general neglect of education will be seen from the Census taken in 1864, when out of a population of 21,703,710,—17,000,000 persons could neither read nor write, and nearly 1,000,000 of the remainder could only read.
- c. Italy, including the late Papal States, has 14 Universities; namely, Bologna, founded in 1119; Naples, in 1244; Padua, in 1228; Rome, in 1244; Perugia, in 1330; Pisa, in 1329; Siena, in 1349; Pavia, founded or re-organised in 1330; Turin, in 1412; Parma, in 1422; Florence, in 1443; Catania, in 1445; Cagliari, in 1764, and Genoa in 1783.
- d. Language.—The Italian, in several dialects, is the language of the country; but, it is said to be spoken in its purity only in Tuscany. The uritien differs much from the spoken language. Both the written and the spoken languages are based substantially upon the Latin.
- e. In the 14th and 15th centuries, Italy became the refuge of men of letters, when driven from Greece by the invasion of the Turks. At that time, the wealthy commercial cities became almost independent, vying with each other in the encouragement of talent, calculated to shed a lustre on their respective States. Hence, under their fostering influence, particularly of the Medici family of Florence, arose a host of poets, painters, sculptors, musicians, historians, &c., such as Dante, Petrarch, Boccacio, Machiaetli, Taxo, &c. The Italians still excel in works of imagination, of antiquities, and of pure science.

LESSON 149.—410. Prople, Manners, &c.—In Manners, the Italians are considered as generally affable, courteous, ingenious, and ready-witted, but jealous, vindictive, lascivious, and superstitious. Masquerades, gaming, horse-races without riders, and public assemblies form their chief diversions.

There is, however, a marked difference between the manners and habits of the people in the Northern and those in the Southern provinces. In Pledmont, Lombardy, and Venetia, the people are far more industrious, frugal, and orderly than in the Southern provinces. The immorality, beggary, and low estimation put on human life by the lower classes in the Roman and Neapolitan provinces, have been condemned by all traveners. Much of this state is to be attributed to long ages of ignorance and bad government. But now, by the free circulation of the Holy Scriptures, liberty of worship, a different system of education, and a liberal constitution, a very different estimate of Italian character will soon be warranted.

411. CHIEF TOWNS, RIVERS, ISLANDS, &c.

Note.—Both the pronunciation and ancient names of places are given in *Italics*. As a rule, u in Italian words is sounded as oo; ch like k; ce, ci, like ch in chime.

Abruszo, a prov. in Naples, divided into Citra and Ultra, p. 898,000. Ad'ige (anc. Athèsis), a river North of the

Adria, in Venetia, once a seaport, bet. the Po and Adige, p. 11. Alessan'dria, a city in Piedmont, with strong fortress, manf. of silks, linens,

and woollens, p. 54. Amalfi, in Naples, on G. of Salerno; here the mariner's compass was invented in 1802, p. 7.

Ancona (anc. Ancona), in the Marches, on the Adriatic, a fine port, with manf. of

silk, &c., p. 41. Aquila, in the Abruszo Ultra, in Naples, with manf. of linens, p. 18.

Arno (anc. Arnus), a river in the W. of Italy. Arez'zo (anc. Arretium), in Tuscany, bpl.

of Mescenas and Petrarch, p. 10.
Arphno (anc. Arphnum), in prov. of Lavoro,
Naples, bpl. of Cicero, Marius, and

Agrippa, p 12.
Asti (anc. Asta), in Piedmont, bpl. of
Alfieri, the poet, manf. of silk-stuffs,

p. 28.

Bari (anc. Barium), cap. of prov. Bari in Naples, a seaport, manf. of cottons, &c., Baja' (bă-yāh, anc. Baiae), in Naples, once

a cel. watering place of the Romans; D. 2.

Beneven'to (anc. Beneventum), in Naples, with an arch of Trajan; under the Lombards, Benevento was the cap. of

a duchy.

Berga'ma (anc. Bergamun), in Lombardy,
manf. of woollens, p. 35.

Blanc, Mt. (mong-blaung), one of the Alps;

ht. 15,782 ft.

ht. 15,783 rt.
Bolögna (bolba-yd, anc. Bononia), a cel.
university, manf. of crape, paper, p. 100Bres'cia (anc. Briata), in Lombardy,
manf. of silks, woollens, &c., p. 35.
Brin'dis! (anc. Brustustium), in prov.
Otranto, Naples, a scaport, p. 10.
Capiliri (cal-yd-re, anc. Cardis), cap. of
isle of Sardinia, with a university,
n. 21

p. 31. Canne (anc. anne (anc. Cannae), in Naples, Hannibal def. the Romans, B.C. 216

Hamnibai def. the Romans, B.C. 216, Capri (anc. Caprize), a beautiful small isle in Bay of Naples, p. 6,000. Cap'ua (anc. Caprize, in prov. of Lavoro, Naples, the anc. inhabs. noted for luxury; here Hamnibal wintered after the battle of Cannae, p. 13.

Carrara, in Modena, cel. for its marble quarries, p. 5. Casale (kd-sah-ld), in Pledmont, manf. of

siiks, p. 25.

Catania (anc. Catana), in Sicily, a seaport and seat of a university; has been several times destroyed by earthquakes, p. 69.

Cen'is, Mt., one of the Alps, ht. 11,460 ft.; the principal pass from France to Italy; under it now runs a Tunnel 8 miles in length.

Chie'ti (ko-ā-tē), in Abruzzo Citra, Naples,

with anc. remains, p. 16.
Chioggia (ke-og'-ge-ah, anc. Fossa Clodia),
a strong seaport in Venetia, p. 27.

Chiusi (ke-00'-sē, anc. Clusium), in Tus-cany, with many Etruscan remains,

Civita Vecchia (che-ve-tah-Vek'-ke-a, Centum-veccoia (cne-ve-tal-ver-re-a, anc. Centum-cellae), the chief port in the late Papal domin., p. 10. Co'mo (anc. Comum), in Lombardy, on Lake Como, mant. of woollens, p. 20.

Cotrone (ko-trō-nā, anc. Crotona), in Calabria Ultra in Naples, once the abode of

Dris Ultra in Naples, once the abode of Pythag'oras, p. 7.
Cremöna (anc. Oremöna), in Lombardy, great trade, p. 38.
Biba (anc. Itwo), a small isle on the W., the residence of Napoleon last on his abdication, from May 1814 to Feb.

1815, p. 21,500.

Bste, a tn. in Venetia, its castle once the abode of the ancient family of Este, the origin of the English Royal Family, p. 8.

LESSON 150.—Ferrara, in the Romagna, a university, great trade in corn. p. 25.

Fiumicino (fe-oo-mě-cee-no, anc. Rubico), a small river E. of Italy, once the boun-dary bet. Rome and Gallia Cisalpina.

dary bet. Rome and Gallia Clsappna. Horence (anc. Florentia), the old cap. of Tuscany, and the cap. of Italy from 1885 to Oct. 1871, a fine city; bpl. of Dautè, Machiavelli, Michaei Angelo, Pope Leo X., Boccacio, and the re-sidence of the Medici family, p. 114.

Frascati (anc. Tuscalum), in the late papal dominions; bpl. of Cato the Censor; here Cicero, Muscenas, &c., had villas, p. 5.

Gaeta (gah-ā-tah, anc. Caiēta), in Naples,

a strong scaport, p. 14.
Gallip'oll (anc. Callipólis), in Otranto,
Naples, grt. mart for oil, p. 14.

Gen'oa (anc. Gentia), in N. of Italy, a strong seaport with grt. trade, once the cap of a cel. repub.; bpl. of Columbus, p. 128.

Girgenti (jeer-gen'-te, anc. Agrigentum), in Sicily, with many ancient remains, p. 18

Gozo, a small isle nr. Malta, belonging to England, p. 16,500. Is'chia (anc. *Enaria*), an isle off Naples,

with hot springs, p. 25, ec'-ce (anc. Aletium),

Lec'-ce (and Alettum, in prov. of Otranto, Naples, with grt. trade, p. 19. Leg'-horn, in Tuscany, a large free seport, exports straw hats, raw an

manufactured silk, &c., p. 84.
Lip'ari Isles (anc. Lip'aree Insilas, or Abolia), N. of Sicily, of volcanic origin; of these Stromboli and Vulcano are

active volcanoes, p. 22.

Lödi, in Lombardy, where Napoleon gained a grt. victory over the Austrians in 1796, p. 20.

Loretto, in the Marches, where is a cel. shrine of the Virgin Mary, visited by many pilgrima, p. 9. Lucca (anc. Luca), in Tuscany, with fine

cathedral, p. 22. Magen'ta, a vil. in Lombardy, where the French def. the Austrians in June, 1859.

French def. the Austrians in June, 1889, Malta (anc. Melta), an isle belonging to England; Ar. 98 Sq. m., pop. 134,000, Cap. Valetta On this island, St. Paul was wrecked. In 1590 it was taken by Charles 5th, who granted it to the Knighte of St. John of Jerusalem. The people are Roman Catholics.

Mantua (anc. Mantua), in Venetia, a strong but unhealthy city and fortress, nr. it the bpl. of Virgil, the Latin poet,

Marengo, a vil. in Piedmont, cel. for a vict. gained by the French under Napoleon 1st over the Austrians on June 14, 1800.

June 14, 1800.

Marsāla (anc. Lilybaeum), in Sicily, noted for its wines, p. 25.

Messīna (anc. Messāna), in Sicily, a strong

port, with grt. trade, p. 95.
Milan (anc. Mediolānum), in Lombardy, a
fine city with grt. trade in books, paper, sliks, &c. It was the cap of a Republic in 1056; of the duchy of Milan in 14th century; then passed successively under Spain and Austria, was taken by the French in 1796 and 1800, but restored to Austria in 1815, and lastly made over to Sardinia in 1859.

Saturns in 1658. Minclo (anc. Minclus), a tributary of the Po, N. of Italy. Modena (anc. Mutina), cap. of Modena, manf. of woollens, velvets, &c., p. 32.

Monopoli, in prov. of Bari, Naples, grt. trade in wine, oil, &c., p. 17. Mon'aco, nr. Nice, once the cap. of a small principal; ceded to France in 1861, D. 2.

Monza, nr. Milan, once the cap. of the Lombard Kingdom, and where the iron

crown of Lombardy was kept, p. 22.
Naples (anc. Neapolie), cap. of the late kingdom of Naples, a large city and port, with a university and several hospitals, p. 447.

Novaro, a strong tn. in Piedmont, where the Austrians def. the Sardinians in 1849, p. 27.

Ofanto (anc. Aufedus), a river in Naples on the E.

Otranto (anc. Hydruntum), a scaport in prov. of Otranto, in Naples, p. 2.
Padua (anc. Patavium), in Venetia, a

Padua (anc. Patavium), in Venetia, a university; bpl. of Livius, Belzoni, the

traveller, &c., p. 53.
Paler'mo (anc. Panormus), cap. of Sicily, a large scaport, seat of a university, p. 194,

Parma (anc. Parma), cap. of Parma, cel. for its cheese, p. 45. Pavia (anc. Tichum), in Lombardy, seat

Pavia (anc. Treinum), in Lombardy, seat of a university, p. 28. Perugia (pa-roo-jah, anc. Perusia), in Umbria, a university, p. 19. Piacenza (anc. Placenzia), in Parma, manf. of woollens, &c.p., 21. Piac (pee 2a, anc. Place), in Tuscany, a cel. university; bpl of Galiléo, p. 22. Po (anc. Padase), the chief river of Italy, on the N on the N.

Pontine Marshes, a very unhealthy but fertile district, between Rome and Naples, extending along the coast for 25 miles

Portici, a tn. in Naples, nr. Vesuvius, on the site of the anc. Herculaneum, p. 17.

LESSON 151. - Ravenna Ravenna), in the Romagna, the seat of the Western Roman Empire at its close, of Odoacer in 476, of the Ostrogoths in 493, and afterwards of the Exarchate of

493, and afterwards of the Exarchate of the Greek or Eastern Empire in 554, and of the Longobards in 754, p. 24. Regglo (red-jio, anc. Repoints), in Calabria Ultra in Naples, a seaport, once a fa-mous city; bpl. of Ariosto; capit. to Gen. Garibaldi, Aug. 1860, p. 22.

Gen. Garibaidi, Aug. 1860, p. 22. Rimini (anc. Ariminum), a scaport in the Romagna, on the Adriatic, p. 16. Rieti (red-tž), in the N. of Naples, with mineral springs, p. 11. ROME (anc. Roma), once the mistress of the world, till lately the cap. of the Papal dominions, and in Nov. 1871 was made the cap. of the Kingdom of Italy. It contains the Vatican or ancient. Italy. It contains the Vatican or ancient palace of the Popes, St. Peter's cathedral. and many ancient p. 207.

San Marino, a small and repub in the Marches; Ar. 26 Sq. m., Pop. 7,080. It is now wholly dependent on the Kingdom of Italy.

of Italy.
Sardin'ia (anc. Sardinia), a large island;
Ar. 9,359 Sq. m., divided into two provs.,
Cagliari on the S. and Sassari on the N. p. 588. (p. 24.

Sas'sari, in Sardinia, a port and university. Sas sari, in out of the same three sarishes sicily (anc. Sicilial), a large and fertile island, Ar. 10,556 Sq. m.; the principal Exports are wines, fruits, olive-oil, cotton, and sulphur, p. 2,391,800, cap. Palermo.

Sien'na (anc. Sena-Julia), in Tuscany, a

fine city, univers., p. 22.
Solferino, a vil. in Lombardy, where the
French def. the Austrians in 1859,
which terminated the war. Spezia, a port of Genoa, once the cap. of a

Spezia, a port or cenus, once the cap. of a country, p. 11.

Spoleto (anc. Spoletium), in Umbria, on a rocky hill, with a cel. aqueduct, p. 20.

Squiliace (skwe-lah-che, anc. Scylactum), a gulf and town of Naples, p. 3.

Streames (anc. Swyradian), a cel. city of

Syracuse (anc. Syracusae), a cel. city of Sicily, once the resid. of Dionysius Hiero, Archimedes, &c., p. 18.

Taran'to (anc. Tarentum), in Naples, a seaport, p. 20. Tiber (anc. Tibëris), a river in Italy, flow-

ing past Rome

Tivoli (anc. Tibur), in the late Papal domin., with many anc. remains, once the resid. of Miccense, Horace, Cicero, &c., p. 6.

Ticino (tocheono, anc. Tichnus), a branch of the Po, N. of Italy. Trapāni (anc. Drepđaum), a port on the W. of Sicily, p. 27.

W. of Sicily, p. 27.
Turin (anc. Augusta Taurinōrum), in
Pledmont, a fine city, and university,
formerly the cap, of the Kingdom of
Sardinia, and here the first Parliament
of the new Kingdom of Italy was held,
Feb. 18, 1861. The next of Parliament was transferred from Turin to Florence in 1865, and in 1871 to the old cap. Rome, p. 180.

p. 180. Urbino (anc. Urbinum), in the Marches; bpl. of Raphael, p. 18. Yaudois (co-duo-a) or Waldenses, an interesting, industrious, and peaceable Christian people, living among the Cottian Alps in Pledmont, and occupying a district about 22 miles by 16 miles, divided into 15 parishes, each having a pastor and school. They were for many

years most ervoly persecuted by the Roman Catholics. At present the popis only about 22,000. [p. 60. Valetta, cap. of Malta, strongly fortified, Ven'ice (anc. Vensta), cap. of Venetia, once styled the Queen of the Adriatic, long the cap. of a cel. repub, the first maritime power in the world. It was occupied by the French from 1797 to 1814 when it reverted to Austria. In occupied by tine French from 1797 to 1814, when it reverted to Austria. In 1886, it was ceded by the Austrians to the Kingdom of Italy, when King Victor Emmanuel entered it in triumph on Nov. 7, 1866. The city is built on several islands, separated by canals,

Several islanus, separascu oy caman, p. 118.
Veröns (anc. Veröna), in Venetia, manf. of woollens, &c.; bpl. of Nepos, Catullus, Pliny the younger, &c., and contains the tombs of the Scaligers, p. 108.
Vicenza (anc. Vicentia), in Venetia, manf.

of woollens, silks, &c., p. 32.
Villa-Franca, a tn. in Venetia, where a treaty of peace was signed bet. the Austrians, French, and Sardinians in July, 1859. Viter'bo (anc. Voltumnae Fanum), a tn. in

late Papal domin., p. 14. Volturno (anc. Vulturnus), a river in

Naples.

LESSON 152 .- 412a. ANCIENT GEOGRAPHY OF ITALY .- Ancient Italy was known by several names; namely, by that of Italia (by which the Peninsula was generally called in the time of Augustus), and by the poetical names, Hesperia, Ausonia, and Saturnia.

- b. The Country was early peopled by various Tribes, speaking different languages, and following different habits and customs. 1. The North was occupied by the Gauls or Cells, the Ligurians, and Veneti. Of these, the Gauls were conspicuous for their bravery and impulsiveness. 2. The Centre was occupied by the Erruscans, distinguished for their early refinement, ingenuity and skill in porcelain and other arts. The Umbrians, supposed to be the most ancient tribe. The Sabines and Samites, remarkable for their industry, frugality, and hardiness. The Latint, of whom the Romans were a branch; the Latint and others. 8. The South was principally occupied by various colonies from Greece, hence this district was frequently called Magna Greecia.
- c. Of all the tribes occupying Italy, the ROMANS, a branch of the Latini, were the most remarkable; who, from the smallest and most contemptible beginning, gradually became the sovereigns not only of Italy, but of the World. In them were combined strong practical sense, an ardent love of their country and superiority, and a deep conviction of the necessity of union and submission to authority. Accustomed to totis and hardships from youth, and trained to the practice of truth, industry, frugality, and all those virtues which are calculated to the practice of truth, industry, frugality, and all those virtues which are calculated to the practice of truth. lated to exalt a nation, the early Romans pressed on with indomitable perseverance in a victorious career, subduing first the tribes contiguous to them, and then, ultimately, every important nation of the ancient world. Whatever country they conquered they endeavoured to civilise and improve, by introducing their language, laws, and customs; and have left imperishable remains of their skill and wisdom.
- **413.** Divisions.—Ancient Italy may be conveniently divided into 3 Great Divisions: 1. Northern; 2. Central; 3. Southern.
- 1. THE NORTHERN DIVISION comprised-1. Istria; 2. Venetia; 3. Gallia Cisalpīna; and 4. Liguria.
- ISTRIA lay to the N.-E., having Venetia on the N., Illyricum on the E., and the Adriatic on the West. Its chief town was Polla, now Pola.
 VENETIA lay on the N.-W. of Istria, and to the N. of the Adriatic.

Its chief Towns were-

TERGESTE now Trieste. PATAVIUM ,, Padua.

Its chief River was-ATHESIS, the Adige.

AQUILEIA now Aquileia. VERONA , Verona.

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3a. GAILIA CHALPINA or Gaul South of the Alps, was bounded on the N. by the Alps, on the E. by the Athèsis; on the S. by the Rubico; and on the W. by Liguria. It was frequently subdivided into two districts; namely, Gallia Transpadina, or Gaul, lying N. of the Padus or Po; and Gullia Cispadina, or Gaul, S. of the Po. It was also frequently called Citerior or nearer, in opposition to Ulterior or further, which was applied to Gallia Transalpina or modern France.

b. In Gallia Transpadana, the chief Towns were-

MANTUA now Mantua.
BRIXIA , Brescia.
CREMONA , Cremona.

MEDIOLÄRUM now Milan.
TICINUM , Pavia.
AUGUSTA TAURINŌRUM , Turin.

The chief Rivers were—PADUS, the Po, and its Northerly branches, namely Ticinus, the Ticino; ADDUA, the Adda; OLLIUS, the Oglio, and MINCIUS, the Mincio.

c. In Gallia Cispadana, the chief Towns were-

RAVENNA now Ravenna, BONŌNIA "Bologna, PLACENTIA "Piacensa, MUTINA now Modena.
PARNA ,, Parma.
FAVENTIA ,, Faenza.

The chief Rivers were the Padus and its southern branches, namely, TREBIA now Trobbia; Scultenna now Penaro, and in the S.-E. Rabico now Fiumicino.

4. LIGUEIA was bounded on the N. by Gallia Transpadana; on the E. by Gallia Cispadana; and on the S. by the Tyrrhenian Sea.

Its chief Towns were-

NICABA now Nice.

GENUA now Genoa.

Its chief River was the TANARUS now Tanaro.

LESSON 153. CENTRAL ITALY comprised—1. Etruria; 2. Umbria; 3. Picchum; 4. The Country of the Sabini, Vestini, Marsi, Peligni, &c.; 5. Samnium; 6. Latium; 7. Campania.

1. ETRURIA lay on the S. of Gallia Cispadāna, and to the E. of the Tyrrhenian Sea. Its chief Towns were—

LUCA now Lucca.
FLORENTIA "Florence.
FALERII "Falleri.

PISAE now Pisa. CLUSIUM " Chiusi. VEII, nr. Isola Farnese.

Faesülae now Fiesole. Perusia "Perugia.

Its chief Rivers and Lakes were—Arnus, the Arno; Tiberis, the Tiber; Lacus Trasimenus, Lake of Perugia; Lacus Vadimonis, Bassano.

2. UMBRIA was bounded on the N. by Gallia Cispadāna, and on the W. by Etruria. Its chief Towns were—

SPOLĒTIUM now Spoleto.

ARIMINUM now Rimini.

Its chief Rivers were-TIBERIS, the Tiber; METAURUS, Metauro.

8. Picknum was bounded on the W. by Umbria, and on E. by the Adriatic.

Its chief Towns were—

Ancôna now Ancona. Adria "Atri. ASCULUM now Ascoli. FIRMUM , Firmo.

Its chief River was TRUENTIUS now Trento.

4. THE SABINI had Umbria on the N.-W.; Picenum on N.-E.; and Latium on the S. Near the Sabines dwelt the Marsi, Vestini, and the Pelicni.

The chief Sabine Towns were-

REATE now Risti. CURES now Corress.

The chief Rivers were the NAR, TIBER, and ANIO.

5. SAMNIUM, with the FRENTÄNI, had on the N. the Marrucëni and Peligni; on the E. the Adriatic and Apulia; on the S. Lucania; and on the W. Latium and Campania.

The chief Towns of Samnium were -

ÆSERNIA now Isernia. BOVIÁNUM "Bojano. BENEVENTUM now Benevento CAUDIUM, nr. mod. Arpaia.

Chief Towns of the Frentani were-ORTONA now Ortona.

ANXÄNUM now Lanciano.

Chief Rivers were-Sagrus, Sangro; Tifernus, Biferno; Auffdus, Ofanto; Vul-TURNUS, Volturno.

6. LATIUM was bounded on the N. by Etruria and Sabini; on E. by Samnium and the Marsi; on S. by Campania. Its chief Tribes were the Latini, Volsci, Hernici, Aqui, Aurunci, &c.

The chief Towns were

now Rome. ROMA TIBUR "Tivoli, ARICIA "La Riccia. ARPINUM "Arpino. OSTIA now Ostia. PRARNESTE ,, Palestrina. , Ardea. ARDEA CORIOLI.

TARRACINA now Terracina. Tusculum " Frascati. ALBA LONGA.

Its chief Rivers were-TIBERIS, the Tiber; ANIO, the Teverone; LIRIS, Gerigliano.

7. Campania was bounded on the N. by Latium, on the E. by Samnium, and on the S. by Lucania.

Its chief Towns were-

BATAE now Beja. SURRENTUM ... Sorrento.

PUTEOLI now Pozzuoli. now Nola NOLA

LESSON 154. SOUTHERN ITALY, called Magna Gracia, from the number of Greek Colonies which it contained, comprised-1. Apulia; 2. Calabria; 3. Lucania; 4. Bruttium.

1. APULIA had on the W. Samnium; on the E. the Adriatic. Its chief Tribes where the Apuli, Daunii, and Peucetti.

Its chief Towns were-

ARPI now Arpa.

VENUSIA now Venosa. CANUSIUM now Canosa.

Its chief Rivers were-TIFERNUS, Biferno; AUFIDUS, Ofanto

2. CALABRIA was the name of the Peninsula which formed the heel of Italy South of the Peucetii. The Greeks named it Messapia and Iapygia.

The chief Towns were-

BRUNDUSIUM now Brindisi.
TARENTUM ,, Taranto.

HYDRUNTUM now Otranto. CALLIPOLIS " Gallipoli.

3. LUCANIA was bounded on the N. by Campania, Samnium, and Apulia; and on the S. by Bruttium.

Its chief Towns were-

METAPONTUM; HERACLEA; SYBARIS; THURII; VELIA; PAESTUM, Pesto.

4. BRUTTIUM occupied the Southern extremity of the Italian Peninsula, having Lucania on the North.

Its chief Towns were-

CROTONA HOW Cotrone. RHEIUM " Reggio.

SCYLACEUM now Squillace. "Strongoli. PRTRLIA

414. The Italian Islands were—1. Corsica; 2. Sardinia; 3. Sicilia; 4. Melita; 5. Lipareae Insulae, and the adjacent islands.

- 1, CORSICA, cap. MARIANA on the East.
- 2. SARDINIA, CAP. CARALIS, Cagliari. 3. SICILIA NOW Sicily; chief Towns

now Catania. SYRACÜSAE now Syracuse.
Girgenti. LILYBAKUM "Marsāla.
Palerno. MESSANA DOW Messina. CATANA DOW MESSINA. CAMARINA " Camarana. AGRIGENTUM "
DREPANUM " Trapant. PANORMUS "

4. MELITA now Malta; GAULOS now Gozo. 5. LIPAREAR INSULAE, the Lipari Islands.

Note.—The preceding sketch of the Ancient Geography of Italy will be sufficient for enabling the student to know the exact locality of the early tribes and their chief towns. The History of Ancient Rome, from its reputed Foundation 1753 B.C. to the extinction of the Western Empire in 476 A.D., must be learned from some of the excellent works already published on that subject.—The following is a summary of the principal Events from the Extinction of the Western Empire to the deep of 1873. to the close of 1871.

TESSON 155.—SKETCH OF ITALIAN HISTORY FROM A.D. 476 TO 1871.

415a. 476 A.D. TO 800.—Orestes, a Patrician and General of the army of Italy, having deposed his emperor, Julius Nepos, in 475, elevated to the purple his own son, Romulus Augustus, a mere youth, styled in contempt Augustilus. Soon after his elevation, the barbarian mercenaries, or Federates, in the service of the Western Empire, made a demand of one third of the lands in Italy as a remuneration. On the emperor's refusal to grant this, they revolted under Ododcer, the leader of the Herüli, a German tribe supposed to have originally come from Scandinavia. A decisive battle was fought near Pavia, when Orestes was defeated and killed, and the young emperor deposed, but permitted to retire on a pension to Lucullanum in Campania, where he soon after died. This defeat terminated the Western Empire in 476, when Ododcer was halled by his troops 'King of Italy;' his prudence, however, never permitted him to assume eithe laws to be enforced, and agriculture to be extensively encouraged. After a reign of 14 years (476 to 490) he was attacked by Theodoric, king of the Ostro, or Eastern Goths. After sustaining three defeats, he was driven into Ravenna, where he was blockaded for nearly 3 years. At last he surrendered on condition that his life should be spared; but shortly after, he was stabbed at a solemn banquet given to him by his rival in 493.

THEODORIC then became sole master of all Italy from the Alps to the extreme South, and made Ravenna his capital. His relign, which lasted 33 years, from the 39 to 526, was one of great national prosperity. The cruel deaths, however, for the philosophers Symmächus in 526, and Boëthius in 526, have left a stain on his character. At his death in 528, his grandson Athalaric, a vicious youth, succeeded, but soon died from excess. His successor, Vitiges, was defeated by the renowned Belisarius, general of Justinian, Emperor of the East, and sent a prisoner to Constantiuople in 541. Toilia, the next king, a brave general, after a prolonged resistance, fell in battle in 552, fighting against Narses, the successor of Belisarius. In Totila the Gothic dominion in Italy terminated, for the Central and Southern parts were conquered, and formed into a province of the Eastern Empire, called the EXARGHATE or Viceroyalty of RAVENNA. Narses was appointed the first Exarch. The Exarchate included the old capital, Rome, and extended from Ravenna to the extreme South. Rome, however, was especially favoured by being allowed to be governed by a Patrician, appointed by the Emperor, while its bishop or pope was permitted to exercise a kind of paternal and spiritual authority.

- b. The Northern part of Italy, which still belonged to the Goths, was invaded in 568, and wrested from them by Alboin, the chief or king of the Lombards (or Longobardi, long-bearded, a German tribe of the Suevic race). Alboin soon reduced the whole of the North, and formed it into a kingdom, with Pavia as the capital. The Lombards introduced the Fendal System into Italy, by dividing the country into districts, over each of which a duke or military leader was appointed.
- c. The Bishops or Popes of Rome, who after the Lombard invasion, though still nominally subject to the Greek Emperors, had obtained considerable influence in the districts around them, while they were the acknowledged heads of the Latin or Western Church. They now eagerly availed themselves of every opportunity of extending their temporal as well as their spiritual authority. The Latin Church had already greatly departed both in doctrine and practice from primitive Christianity, by the multiplication of rites and ceremonies, the worship of images, invocation of saints, prayers for the dead, &c. About 726 a.D., Lee, Emperor of the East, frequently called the Lonoclast, or image destroyer, issued an Edict proscribing the use of images and religious pictures. In compliance with this, the Eastern churches were cleansed from idolatry. But Gragore 2nd. Bishop of Rome, not only resisted the edict of Lee, but andaciously asserted that the use of images had descended from the times of the apostles! He then proceeded to excommunicate the Emperor, to throw off his allegiance to him, and to invite Liutprand, the Lombard King, to seise on Ravenna and Romagna for the Church. Liutprand readily accepted the invitation, and succeeded in wresting those places from the Exarchate, but annexed them to his own dominions. His successor Astolphus proceeded further, by summoning Rome to acknowledge him as her lawful sovereign. Upon this the next Pope, Stephen, pursuing the same policy as his predecessor, besought the aid of Pepin, King of France, who crossed the Alps at the head of a Frankish army, defeated Astolphus, and having wrested Ravenna and the Romagna from

his grasp, presented them as a donation, it is said, to the Church in 754 A.D. No sooner, however, was Astolphus released from the presence of his enemy than he withheld the promised territory. On this, Pepin again crossed the Alps, and again compelled Astolphus to submit and fulfil his engagement. After this double chastisement, the Lombard kingdom began to decline. In 774, Desiderius, the last Lombard king, having given shelter to Queen Geberge, the widow of Carloman, brother of Charlemagne, was attacked and deposed, and compelled to retire to a monastery. The Lombard kingdom was then annexed to that of the Franks in 776 A.D.

- d. The preceding period presented only a series of barbaric inroads, incessant wars, and violent changes, while the country exhibited a scene of widespread desolation and misery. Several towns were compelled to form alliances with each other for their mutual defence, and appoint their own magistrates, some of whom obtained hereditary power which they transmitted to their descendants. Thousands of the inhabitants sought safety amidst the lagoons and marshes on the shores of the Adriatic, where, by degrees, they laid the foundation of a city destined to become the capital of the subsequently powerful republic of Venice.
- **4.16**a. A.D. 800 to 1508.—In A.D. 800, Charlemagne having visited Rome to quell a turnult raised against his friend Pope Leo 3rd, was consecrated by him "Emperor of the Romans." Charlemagne's Empire then embraced nearly all France, the greater part of Germany, the Northern and Central portions of Italy to the borders of modern Naples, and the Northern part of Spain as far as to the Ebro. The Southern part of Italy was occupied partly by the reduced Greek Exarchate, and partly by the Saracens. Rome, though nominally subject to Charlemagne, was in reality under the sway of the Pope.
- b. Under the weak and divided rule of Charlemagne's successors, Italy was parcelled out into numerous principalities and states, governed at first by ounts, marquises, and other feudatories of the new Western Empire. As the principal towns rose in population and wealth, they gradually made themselves independent of their feudal chiefs, and formed so many Commonwealths. Then arose innumerable quarrels and wars between the towns and the great lords; between one town and another; between the lords also with each other; and last of all, between a combination of towns and lords against the kings of Germany, who styled themselves the successors of Charlemagne, and assumed the often merely nominal title of Kings of Italy and Emperors of the West. At one period, the Saracens threatened the greater part of the Western shore. As a protection against their incursions, Pope Leo 4th, about 847, surrounded with walls the churches of the apostles Peter and Paul on the Vatican Mount, which thus formed a new quarter, and was named from him the Leonine City.
- c. In the midst of all this confusion, several considerable states were formed, such as the Papal States, the duchies of Benevento and Salerno, the Kingdom of Sicily and Apulia under the Normans, the Republics of Venice, Florence, Genoa, and Pisa, and lastly the duchy of Milan. The Dukes of Savoy, originally a transalpine dynasty, also acquired Piedmont and other possessions on the South side of the Alps. Such was the origin of the Italian States in the Middle Ages.
- **\$17a.** 1508 to 1798.—At the commencement of the 16th century, so powerful had the Republic of Venice become, that a League, called the League of Cambray (a town in the N. of France), was formed in 1508 to humble her power. This League comprised the warlike and ambitious Pope Julian 2nd (the originator of it), the Emperor Maximilian, Louis 12th of France, and Ferdinand 5th (the Catholic), of Spain. By this League, the Venetians lost for a time the whole of their continental possessions, which, however, they recovered in 1512.
- b. On the elevation to the Imperial Dignity in 1519 of Charles 5th, grandson of Ferdinand of Spain, the Italian cities were destined again to experience many changes. About 1527, Charles 5th established by conquest the dominion of the house of Austria over the Duchy of Milan, and over the kingdom of Naples and Scilly, which dominion on his abdication he gave up to his son Philip 2nd, and his successors of the Spanish branch of the house of Austria. Spain continued to rule these territories till the beginning of the 18th century, when, by the extinction of the Spanish branch of the house of Austria, Lombardy was transferred in 1706 to the German branch of the same house, and in 1734, Naples and Sixily were formed into an independent kingdom under a Spanish Prince, Doc Carlos, who was crowned King as Charles 7th. In 1718, the Duke of Savoy assumed the title of King of Sardinia, as that island had then been ceded to him as an equivalent for Sidly, which was surrendered to the Emperor, and after-

wards, as above stated, formed in 1734 a portion of the Kingdom of Naples. During this century, Venice, Tuscany, and Genoa, as well as the monarchies of Sardinia, Naples and Sicily, figured among the sovereign states of Europe, while Lombardy belonged to Austria.

- **LESSON 1.56.—2.18**... 1798 to 1871.—In 1798, Italy was overrun by the armies of the French under Napoleon Buonaparte, and Pope Pius 6th deposed, while Venice disappeared from the list of sovereign states, and became an Austrian province. In 1805, Napoleon having become emperor, formed a kingdom of Italy, which, however, did not include one-third of Italy. He annexed another third to the French Empire, and gave Naples first to his brother Joseph, and then, on his transference to the throne of Spain, he gave it to his brother in-law Murat. In 1814, the French having evacuated Italy, the various States were restored to their former condition, except that Venice remained under Austria, and Genoa was annexed to the Sardinian monarchy.
- b. In 1859, the Italian Patriots urged the King of Sardinia to make a grand effort to amalgamate the petty sovereignties into one strong united Kingdom. For this purpose, the aid of Napoleon 3rd, Emperor of the French was sought and procured. The first object of the two sovereigns was the expulsion of the Austrians from Lombardy. War was accordingly declared against Austria in April 1859. In this war the Austrians suffered several defeats, particularly at Montebello (May 20), Magenta (June 4), and Solferino (on June 24). On July 11 following, preliminaries of peace were signed at Villafranca, when Lombardy was ceded to Sardinia.
- c. In 1860, Recolutions occurred in Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and the Romagna, when the inhabitants, having expelled their princes, voted by universal suffrage for Annexation to Sardinia, which was accepted by the King. Shortly afterwards, the King and the Sardinian Parliament ceded the provinces of Saroy and Nice to France, in consideration of the services rendered to the Italian cause by the French Emperor in the war against Austria. In May of the same year, Garibaidi landed at Marsala in Sicily, defeated the Neapolitan troops in several engagements, and assumed the authority of Dictator. He next invaded Naples, compelled Francis 2nd to withdraw, and being joined by a Sardinian army, subjugated the whole kingdom; when, on Nov. 7, he resigned his Dictatorship, and saluted Victor Emmanuel, "King of Italy." The new Kingdom then comprised the whole Peninsula, except Venetia, the Pope's Dominions, and San Marino.
- d. The next alliance formed by Italy was with Prussia, in May 1866, in order to expel the Austrians from Venetia. In June following, war was accordingly declared against Austria by both these powers. The Italians were defeated both at Custozza and Versa on land, and near Lissa in a naval engagement. The Austrians, however, having suffered several terrible defeats in Germany by the Prussians, were compelled to make peace. By the treaty of peace signed at Vienna in Oct. 1866, Venetia was ceded to Italy; and in November following it was, by a plebiscitum of the Venetians, formally annexed to the newly-formed Kingdom of Italy. In Nov. 1870, the Papal Territory was by a plebiscitum of the Koman people wrested from the power of the Pope, and annexed to the Kingdom of Italy, thus completing the unification of the whole country under one Sovereign. On July 2, 1871, the city of ROME was declared the capital of modern, as it had been of ancient, Italy.
- **4.19**a. GROWTH AND INFLUENCE OF PAPAL ROME.—Bome has long been the centre of that great Spiritual Depotism, which for centuries held unbounded sway over Europe. Its influence, however, began to decline at the Reformation, and recently Italy, Austria, and even Spain have thrown off its yoke. As a Temporal Power, the rise of the Popedom dates from the year 755 A.D., when Pepin, Mayor of the Palace at Paris (having procured the sanction of the Pope to depose his sovereign, Childeric 3rd, and assume the sovereignty himself), acceded to the solicitation of the Pope to wrest Ravenna and the Romagna from the power of Astolphus, King of the Lombards. Pepin defeated Astolphus, and subdued the coveted territory, which he bestowed on the Pope. To this Charlemagne added the provinces of Perugia and Spoleto. In 1063, Henry 3rd, Emperor of Germany, added the city of Benevento and the salicent territory. In 1102, Matilda, Marchioness of Tuscany, added the district afterwards called the "Patrimony of St. Peter." Other portions were afterwards obtained, till the whole ultimately exceeded upwards of 17,000 Square Miles. In 1808, the Papa:

States were forcibly incorporated into the Kingdom of Italy under Napoleon 1st, but were restored to the Pope in 1815 by the Congress of Vienna. In 1859, the Romagna revolted from the Pope, which was followed in 1860 by the secession of the Marches and Umbria. Lastly, in Nov. 1870, his remaining territory was wrested from him, and at the entreaty of the inhabitants themselves, the district was annexed to the modern Kingdom of Italy, with Rome as the future capital.

- b. In Ecclesiastical Affairs, the Pope is the absolute and irresponsible ruler of the Roman Catholic Church. His decisions are held to be infallible, from which there is no appeal.
- c. The Pope may seek advice from the sacred college of Cardinals, consisting, when complete, of 70 persons. The Cardinals are considered *Princes* of the Church, and, till lately, governed when the Pontifical throne was vacant. On the demise of a Pope, the cardinals elect by votes a successor from their own order. He who receives the votes of two-thirds of the members is declared elected.
- d. The inquiring Student, wishful to know by what means the Popes obtained their Temperal Power, and assumed unbounded control over the consciences and affairs of men, is referred to an article entitled "Annals of the Papacy," given in the Sunday at Home for 1860, p. 109. This article is an analysis of a work written by the Marquis D'Azeglio, called "The Court of Rome and the Gospel." He will there learn the double dealing and subterfuges which have been adopted from its temporal authority. Now having recourse to a forged donation of the Emperor Constantine, now to the faise decretals of Isidore, both documents declared condemnable impostures by Bossuet himself; now appropriating, like Pope Zacharias, the principal cities of the Exarchate to the prejudice of his acknowledged sovereign, the Emperor of the East; now, like Innocent 2nd, sending, in the name of St. Peter, to King Pepin of France, a letter which he declared had come down from heaven, and had been written by the Prince of the Apostics himself, exhorting that monarch to send an army to the speedy aid of the Church! He will there also see how the Popes, who once needed the consent of the first Christian Emperors to be legitimately elected, and bowed to the civil power under the infidel or Arian, Heruil and Ostrogoths, succeeded at last in raising themselves above all the monarchs of the earth, and arrogating the right of deposing Kings from their thrones, and releasing subjects from their allegiance, &c.

420.—The House of Savoy.

In 1416, the Counts of Suvoy adopted, by the permission of the Emperor of Germany, the title of Duke, and in 1418, they acquired the principality of Pledmont. At the peace of Utracht in 1713, they obtained the island of Sicily with the title of King. Sicily was exchanged in 1730 for the isle of Sardinsia, to which henceforth, the Royal Dignity remained attached. Genoa and the surrounding territory were added in 1815 to the Sardinian dominions. The direct male line in the House of Savoy became extinct with King Carlo Fell's in 1831, when, by the existing Saile Law, the crown fell to Prince Carlo Alberto, of the House of Savoy-Carignano, a title derived from a small town in the province of Turin, and assumed by a younger branch of the Savoy family. King Charles Albert, the first of the Carignano branch, abdicated March 25, 1849, in favour of his son, the present King, Victor Emmanuel 2nd, born March 14, 1830, and proclaimed King of Italy by the Italian Parliament, March 17, 1861.

LESSON 157.—TURKISH EMPIRE.

221. THE TURKISH OF OTTOMAN EMPIRE comprises—1. Turkey in Europe, or Turkey Proper, with its Tributary Provinces on the Danube; 2. Turkey in Asia, which comprises Asia Minor or Anatolia, Armenia, Kurdistan, Syria, Mesopotamia, the Hedjaz or West Part of Arabia, and Cyprus; 3. Turkey in Africa, which comprises Egypt (under a Khedive or hereditary Viceroy), Nubia, Dongola, Sennaar, with Meroë; Tripoli with Barca and Fezzan; and Tunis, which is almost independent.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

- **422a.** Physical.—Extent, &c.—The Area of Turkey Proper, exclusive of the Tributary Provinces in Europe, is 138,203 sq. miles; Pop. 10.500,000; Cap. Constantinople.
- b. Seas, Gulfs, Straits.—Black or Euxine Sea; Bospŏrus, or Strait of Constantinople; Sea of Marmŏra; the Dardanelles, or the Hellespont; the Archipel'ago; the Gulfs of Saros, Enos, Contessa, Monte Santo, Cassandra, Salonika, and Volo, and the Ionian and Adriatic Seas.
- c. Chief Islands.—Candia or Crete, governed by a Pasha; Rhodes and the Turkish Spor'ădes (or scattered islands), namely, Scarpanto, Cos, Kalimno, Patmos, Nicaria, Samos, Scio, Mitylene, Lemnos, Imbros, Samothraki, Thasos, and the small islands near the coast of Asia, all of which are under the Pasha of Rhodes, who is subordinate to the Capitan Pasha.
- d. Capes.—On the East, are Kalagria, Emineh, Monte Santo, Drapano, and Paliuri; on the West, are Linguetta and Rodoni.
- 423a. Surface.—Turkey, South of the Danube, is an undulating region of hills and valleys, mountains, and table-lands of little elevation. In Bulgaria are extensive Plains, which, as they approach the Danube, abound with stagnant marshes. The Balkan, an extensive mountain chain, traverses the centre from E. to W. In Rumelia are several elevated Plateaux; and in Thessaly, many beautiful valleys. Almost every part of the country is well watered.
- b. Mountains.—The Balkan Mts., between Bulgaria and Rumelia, from 2,000 to 3,000 ft.; Sharra-Tagh, on the West of the Balkan, 10,000 ft.; Dinaric Alps, on the West of Bosnia, of which the highest point is Mt. Dinara, 7,500 ft. South of these are the Little Balkan; Despota Dagh, or Rhodope, 8,000 ft.; the Pindus Range, between Albania and Thessaly, 6,000 ft.; with Ossa, Pelion, and Olympus, in Thessaly; and Mt. Ida, in Candia, 7,600 ft.
- c. The chief Plains are—the Plain of Wallachia and the Plain of Bulgaria.

- d. Rivers.—The Danube, with its Northern tributaries—the Pruth, Sereth, and Aluta; its Southern—Morava, Sava, and Drina. South of the Balkan are—the Maritza, Strymon, and Vardar.
- e. The Lakes are—Scutari, 145 sq. m.; Ochrida, 95 sq. m.; and Janina, all of which are in Albania. There are also many smaller lakes in other parts.
- **224a.** Climate, &c.—The Climate of European Turkey is much colder than that of the parts of Italy and Spain, under the same latitudes; and is so changeable that at Constantinople the temperature varies 30° in a few hours. In the recesses of the highest mountains, snow lies during the greater part of the year. The Winter in general is severe; while the Summer is frequently very hot. Albania enjoys in general a delightful climate, though it is occasionally visited by destructive earthquakes.
- b. The Mean Annual Temperature at Constantinople is 56° Fahr., of winter is 49°, of summer 71° Fahr. c. Bain/all.—The annual quantity is moderate.
- **425.** Soil, &c.—The Soil is in general very fertile, yielding in abundance, according to the Latitude and elevation, the various vegetables, fruits, and cereals of the surrounding countries. There are many extensive Forests.

b. Minerals.—The chief Minerals are iron, lead, copper, and marble, of which there are several mines in various parts of the country. Several of the mountain chains are supposed to contain ores not only of the useful but of the precious metals; for, anciently there were gold mines of great value. c. The Wild Animals comprise the brown bear, the wolf, wild boar, chamois, fox, jackal, &c. Deer and game are plentiful.

\$26a. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—For administrative purposes, Turkey in Europe (including the Tributary Provinces) is divided into 14 Eyalets or General Governments, each under a Paska of the first rank; these are subdivided into 43 Eavjack or smaller provinces under lieutenant-governors or Pashas of the second rank; and these into 378 Kassas or districts under inferior officers. Turkey in Asia has eyalets, 78 sanjaks, and 68 kassas. Turkey in Africa has 3 eyalets, 17 sanjaks, and 68 kassas. The preceding divisions are of little utility to general readers.

b. The following are the old and Historical Provinces, with the pop. of the chief towns in thousands:—

LESSON 158.—427a. Industrial Pursums.—Agriculture, fe.—In consequence of the many unjust exactions made on the native cultivators of the land, or rayahs, as they are called, Agriculture is in a backward state. Ten times the produce might be raised were the inhabitants protected from vexatious exactions.

b. The principal Products are maize, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, and rice on the banks of some of the rivers. Figs, oranges, lemons, the finest fruits, with flax, hemp, cotton, tobacco, &c., grow in great abundance. c. Animal.—Great numbers of sheep and goats are reared, the flesh of which constitutes the

principal animal food of the inhabitants. Horses of a small breed and cattle are also numerous.

- 428a. Manufactures, &c. The Manufactures of Turkey are mostly of a domestic kind; the principal are saddles, coarse woolken cloths, copper and tin utensils, a little cotton and linen; with sike at Salonica and Larissa; and carpets in Bulgaria and Servia. Tanneries and distilleries of brandy are numerous. Embroidery is carried on by females; muslins are made in Constantinople. There are also in various parts cotton, printing, and dye works.
- b. Commerce.—The Commercial System is the best feature in the policy of Turkey; for, except in the article of provisions, no restrictions on commerce exist; and, on the payment of a small duty, the importation of all foreign produce is freely permitted. The chief Exports of Turkey to Great Britain are wool, hides, wheat, raw cotton, silk, tobacco, rasins, figs, honey, carpets, leather, &c., the value of which in 1870 was 7,719,5621. The Imports into Turkey from Great Britain consist chiefly of manufactured goods, as cotton-fabrics, cotton-yarn, wrought-iron, woollens, nachinery, &c., the value of which in 1870 amounted to 7,657,1391. The wealthier classes of Tarks are generally too apathetic and indolent for commercial pursuits, which they leave to the Greeks, Armenians, Armsouts, and Jews. Transactions are mostly carried on for ready money. c. Roads, &c.—The Roads throughout are mostly carried on for ready money. c. Roads, &c.—The Roads throughout are mostly course not used; and the caravans of merchants consist of horses and camels, which almost all merchandise is conveyed. The streets in the towns are narrow, crooked, and dirty, and rarely either paved or lighted. Of Railroads, there are only two small lines, one at Kustendji and the other at Varna. d. The chief Ports are Constantinople, Volo, Salonica, Gallipoli, Varna, and Burghas.
- **429**a. Social Condition.—Government.—The Government is, in principle, despotic, under a sovereign styled Sultan, or Grand Seignior; but, of late years, it has been administered with comparative mildness. The Executive is frequently too weak to restrain or punish the individual tyranny of the Pashas or Governors in the remote provinces.
- b. The authority of the Sullan is principally based on the Koran, or Record of Mahometan Faith. Were he to abandon its doctrines, or act contrary to its precepts, he would loosen his authority; and in extreme cases, subject himself to be deposed. Hence, his power, though in general absolute, is, in the above circumstances, limited. So long as the influence of the Koran exists, the Turks cannot amalgamate with the dependent population. With regard to the Succession to the throne, the reigning monarch has a right to name his successor; yet, in general, the oldest male heir, though not a son, may succeed; thus, the back Sultan was succeeded by his brother, the present Sovereign, and not by his son; then 21 years of age.
- c. The Legislative.—Next to the Koran, the laws of the Mulleka, a code formed of the supposed sayings of Mahomet, and the decisions of his immediate successors, are binding on the sovereign. In his Legislative capacity the Sultan is assisted by two high dignitaries—the Grand Vivier, who is head of the temporal government, and the Sheik-ul-Islam or Grand Multi, who is head of the church and supreme interpreter of the Koran. Formerly, on important occasions, the Sultan applied to the Grand Multi for a fetva, or legal opinion, to ascertain whether his intended course of action was in accordance with the Koran; but this mode is now rarely followed.
- d. The Executive.—In the government of the Empire, the Sultan is assisted by a Divan or ministerial council, consisting of the following members:—1. The Grand Vister, who is the chief officer and head of the civil government; and, in the absence of the Sultan, is President of the Divan. 2. The Reis effendi, or minister for foreign affairs. 3. The Seraskier, or commander-in-chief. 4. The Capitan Pusha, or Grand Admiral and minister of Marine. 5. The Tefterdar, or minister of Finance. The other ministers are those of Commerce and Agri-

culture, of Police, of Justice, of Public Instruction, and of the superintendence of ecclesiastical and charitable institutions.

- e. Local Government.—For administrative purposes, the country is divided, as before stated, into 14 Eyalets (formerly called Pashalics), each governed by a Pasha or Governor-General, who has his Divan or Council, and is assisted by his own subordinate officers over the Sanjats and Kazes.
- f. Justice.—In all districts and towns of the empire, justice is administered by judges called Cadis, who are of different ranks. Each Cadi is assisted by a deputy or naib. At a trial, each party (accuser and accused) represents his case, unassisted by counsellors of any kind, and supports his statement by evidence. The deposition of two competent witnesses is admitted as complete legal proof in all cases whatever. Simple as this process appears, yet in the administration of justice much corruption is said to prevail.
- g. The Revenue, which is drawn from tithes, land-tax, and indirect taxes, amounted in 1869 to about 14,500,000L. The Expenditure for the same year was about 17,000,000l. The Public Debt is 88,413,000l. A. The Army, which is raised partly by conscription and partly by enlistment, is divided into—1. The Nizam or regular army; 2. The Rediy or Reserve; 3. The Contingents of Auxiliaries; and 4. The irregular troops. The number in time of war is about 460,000; in time of peace, about 148,000 men. The Navy in 1869, comprised 163 vessels, manned by 38,000 sallors and marines.
- LESSON 159.—230a. SOCIAL CONDITION CONTINUED.—Religion.—The Mahometan Religion is that of the State, and the Laws of the Koran the code not only of Religious Faith and Observances, but of civil justice. Only the Turks are Mahometans; the rest of the inhabitants, being either Greeks, Armenians, Sclavonians, Jews, or foreigners, are of some other religion. By the Tanzimal, or great Constitutional Reform, passed in 1839 and confirmed in 1866, all subjects have now equal rights; and the evidence of all, without distinction of creed, is received in law courts.
- b. Mahomet or Mohammed, the founder of this religion, was born at Mecca in Arabia in A.D. 571, of one of the noblest tribes of the Ishmeelitish Arabis. Having passed his early life as a merchant, and being of a shrewd observing disposition, he conceived the design of promulgating a New Religion. In executing his plan, he encountered much opposition, so that in his 53rd year he was compelled to fly with a few followers from Mecca to Medina. This flight, which took place in 622 A.D., is called the Hegha or "Flight," from which the Mahometans daste their Era. The chi-! points inculcated by Mahomet in his Koran or "Code of Fatth," are—1. The Unity of God; 2. The Divine Mission of Mahomet; 3. The stated observance of Prayer; 4. The giving of Alms; 5. The observance of an Annual Fast; 6. A Pligrimage to Mecca; 7. The Resurrection of the Body; 8. A Future State in which the Good will be rewarded and the Bad punished. The new Heligion was little more than a skilful adaptation of various parts of the religions previously existing in Arabia; and was well fitted to attract, by the apparent respect which it professed for the peculiar tenets of each, except the idolatrons worship of the Sabians. Mahomet cautionsly avoided any pretensions to working miracles. In 629 A.D., he entered Mecca in triumph, which event may be regarded as the final establishment of Mahometanism in Arabia; its original seat.
- c. In Turkey, it was formerly death for a Turk to change his religion, but this fundamental principle of Mahometan Law has, by the Imperial Charter of Liberties granted in 1856, been abandoned, and Liberty of Conscience and of Religious Worship is allowed to all. By this Charter, also, foreigners, so long as they obey the laws and pay taxes, are permitted to possess landed property.
- d. The Grand Muft of Constantinople or Sheik-ul-Islam, "chief of the elect," is the highest authority on the legality of religious, legal, and civil acts. He has jurisdiction over all the great professors or expounders of the law (called Muftis), the administrators or judges of the law (called Cadis), and the priests or ministers of religion (called Mollahs). All these, whether priest, dectors, or judges of the law, are members of the Ulema or sacred Council.

The Ministers of religion are subordinate to the civil authorities; though they enjoy certain privileges, pay no taxes, and their property is hereditary in their families. The Sultan not only nominates the Grand Mufti, but can depose or exile him at pleasure.

- 431. Education, &c.-In Turkey, since 1869, schools are attended both by boys and girls; but formerly, education was deemed unnecessary for girls. Formerly, too, Law and Theology were the chief studies; and next, Poetry, History, and Metaphysics. In all towns, public schools, for instruction in the above-named subjects, have long been established; and Medresses or colleges, having public libraries, were attached to all the principal mosques. The generality of the pupils, however, were taught only to read and write, employing as class-books the Koran and some commentaries upon it. But this system was enlarged in 1869, and five classes of schools formed; namely, primary, superior primary, preparatory schools, lyceums, and special schools. Attendance is compulsory for 4 years. There is now also a University at Constantinople.
- 432a. Races, &c.—The population is composed of many races; namely, the Ottomans or Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Sclavonians, Moldo-Wallachians, Jews, Albanians, Tartars, Arabs, Syrians, Kurds, Druses, and Gypsies.
- b. Languages.—The Languages of Turkey are as various as the races; 1. The Turkish, spoken by the Turks, is much intermixed with Arabic and Persic. is said to be expressive and musical, easy to speak but not easily written. 2. The is said to be expressive and musical, easy to speak but not easily written. 2. The Arabic is the written language, and is used at court and in public worship. 3. The modern Greek or Romaic, spoken by the Greek population, consists of several dialects. 4. The Sclavonian is spoken by the Bosniacs, Croatians, Bulgarians, &c. 5. The Wallachian, derived from the Latin, is spoken in Wallachia and Moldavia. The other dialects are—the Armenian, Arnautic, the Lewish, intermixed with Spanish and Italian; and the Lingua France, a mixed Commercial Language, intelligible on the shores of the Levant. In writing, the Turks trace the lines from right to left. Instead of pens, they write with reeds cut like our pens but without slits.
- c. Manners, &c.—The Turks (Ottomans or Osmaniles, as they style themselves) are the dominant race, and of Tartar extraction. The tarm rayah is applied to all the peasantry. In character, the Turks are now, as of old, prond, phiegmatic, and sensual; but hospitable, true to their word, sincere, and honourable in their dealings. They are not prone to anger, but when provoked, their fury has no limits. Though capable on emergencies of great exertions, laxiness and apathy are their distinguishing characteristics. The national dress of the Turks is loose and flowing; that of the women, with the exception of the turban, differing but little from that of the men. Latterly, however, they have been been the little the dress and manners of other Eurosean nations. have begun to imitate the dress and manners of other European nations. The Turks are excellent horsemen. In performing their devotions, or on entering a dwelling, they take off their shoes. They lie down to sleep in their clothes. Their amusements are of the tranquil kind; they would regard as foolish the noisy expressions of galety; their utterance is slow and deliberate; they retire early to rest, rise before the sun, and pass much of their time in repose.

LEGGON 160.-433.-CHIEF TOWNS, PROVINCES, ISLANDS, &c.

Adrianople, in Rumelia, once the resid. of the Sultans, now the second city of the empire, manf. of silks, woollens, &c.,

was empire, manl of silks, woollens, &c., p. 140.
Albania, a large prov., the inhabs, (who are descendants of the anc. Illyrians) are called by the Turks, Arnauts, p. 1,200,000.

Athos, a mt. in Macedonia. [atia, p. 15.] Banyaiūka, a strong tn. in Turkish Cro-Bel'grade, cap. of Servia, with a strong

fortress, manf. of arms, carpets, silk goods, &c., p. 50.
Bosna-Serai (ser-t), cap. of Bosnia, manf.

Bosna-Serai (ser-t), cap. of Bosnia, manr. of arms, woollens, &c., p. 70.
Buch'arest, cap. of Wallachia, seat of a Greek Archbishop, p. 121.
Bulgaria (anc. Massia Inferior), a large prov. bet, the Danube and the Balkan or Haemus Mts., pop. 3,000,000.
Crete or Candia (anc. Ortid), an island in the Mediterranean, 150 m. by 10 to 30

m. Climate mild and healthy. In 1866, the Christian inhabs. revolted against the Turks, but, after some time, were subdued, p. \$23,000.

bauducu, p. 323,000. Candia, cap. of Crete, fam. for a 30 years' siege by the Turks in 1648, p. 20. Cos, an isle, one of the Spor'ādes, 21 m. by 5 m., bpl. of Hippoc'rātēs and Apeliës,

ONSTANTINGPLE (anc. Byzautium), cap. of Turkey, rebuilt by Constantine the Great in 330 a.b., and made the cap. of the Roman Empire; taken by the Turks in 1453, which terminated the Greek or Eastern Roman Empire; contains many mosques, hospitals, and ancient remains, p. 800.

Danubian Provinces are Moldavia and

Wallachia, which now form Roumania. Durazzo (anc. Dyrrachium), a seaport in

urazzo (ano. 29. Albania, p. 9. alatz (ga-latsk), in Moldavia, a free sea-Galatz (ga

port, p. 25. Gallipoli (anc. Callipolis), in Thrace, the principal Turkish naval station, p. 9. Imbros, an isle 19 m. by 10 m., pop. 4,000.
Ismail, a strong tn. in Moldavis, taken
by the Russians in 1790, but restored to

by the Russians in 1790, but restored to the Turks in 1856, p. 25.

Janina, cap. of Albania, burnt down in 1820 by order of All Pasha, p. 36.

Jassy or Yassy, cap. of Moldavia, with great trade, p. 30.

Larissa, cap. of Theasaly, manf. of silk and cotton goods, p. 25.

Lemnos or Stallmene, an isle in the Archi'pelago. Ar. 160 sq. m. p. 10,000.

Macedonia, a district of Rumella, on the West: the ancient Finedom of Alex. West; the ancient kingdom of Alexander the Great, B.C. 336.
Mitylene (anc. Lesbos), an isle in the Archi-

mitylene (anc. Lescos), an isse in the Archi-pelago; 47. 276 eq. m.; bpl. of Sappho, Alcæus, and Theophrastus. On March 6th, 1867; this isle was visited by a terrible earthquake, p. 40,000. Mostar, cap of Herzegovina, p. 15. Nicaria, an island (anc. Jouria, so named from Ickrus, who is fabled to have been

drowned near this place). Ar. 50 sq.

m., p. 1,000, Nicop'ölis, in Bulgaria, founded by Tra-jan, much trade, p. 16. Olympus, a cel. mt. in Thessaly. ht.

9.754 ft.

Patmos, a small isle in the Archipelago, cel, for the exile of St. John, p. 4,000.

Pelion, a cel. mt. in Thessaly.
Pharsalia, now Satalge, in Thessaly, cel.
for the vict. of Casar over Pompey, B.C. 48.

Philippi, a ruined tn. in Macedonia, near which Augustus and Antony def. -Brutus and Cassius, B.C. 42. To the Christians of this place Paul addressed two of his epistles.

Philippopolis, in Thrace, manf. of wool-

lens, silks, cottons, p. 40.
Pindus, a chain of mts. bet, Thessaly and Albania.

Rhodes, an island on the coast of Asia Minor, cel. in and times as a powerful naval state, and in modern times, for the defence made by the Knights of St. John against the Turks in 1522. It

St. John against the Turks in 1522. It is governed by a pasha subordinate to the Capitan Pasha. The Ar. is 420 sq. m., pop. 38,000, cap. Rodose, p. 15. Rumelia or Rumuli, a large prov. including Thrace on the East, Macedonia on the West, and (in some maps) Thessaly on the South. [p. 30. Rust'chuk, in Bulgaria, with great trade, Salonica (nee-ka, anc. Thes-adonica), in Macedonia, a large scaport, p. 70. Samothräki, an isle in the Archinelago:

Samothrāki, an isle in the Archipelago ;

Ar. 30 sq. m., pop. 1,500. Sāmos, a fertile isle; bpl. of Pythag'oras; Ar. 165 sq. m., pop. 50,000. Scarpanto (anc. Carpáthue), an isle 30 m,

by 8 m.

Scio (anc. Chios), a fertile isle in the Archipelago. In the revolt of 1822, nearly all the pop. were massacred by the Turks; 32 m. by 18 m.; Ar. 508 sq. m., pop. about 62,000.

Scutari, in Albania, manf. of cottons. fire-arms, p. 40. eres, in Macedonia, manf. of cottons,

Seres, in Maceuoum,
woollens, &c., p. 30.
Shum'la, in Bulgaria, resid. of a Pasha,
tin and copper wares, p. 40.

del, p. 20.

Sophia (so-phera), cap. of a Sanjak in Bulgaria, with hot baths, manf. of woollens, p. 50. Thasos, an isle off Rumelia; Ar. 85 sq.

m., pop. 6,090.
Tempë, a cel. vale in Thessaly, about 4 m. long, between Olympus and Ossa.
Tenedos, a small isle, at the entrance of

the Dardanelles.

Thessaly, a district in the South of Rumelia; Ar. 5,500 sq. m.
Thrace (anc. Thracia), a district of Rumelia on the East.

Varna (anc. Odessus), a strong seaport in Bulgaria, p. 25.

Widden, a strong tn. in Bulgaria, resid, of a Pasha, grt. trade in corn, wine, &c., p. 25.

LESSON 161.—434a. HISTORY.—OSMAN OF OTTOMAN, an emir or chief of the Oguzian Tartars, mercenaries or allies of the Sultan of Koniah (anc. Iconium) in Asia Minor, is the reputed founder of the Turkish empire. In 1289, he possessed only Siguta in Bithynia in Asia Minor, and a small territory adjoining. By his personal talents, aided by the zeal and bravery of his followears, he acquired and transmitted to his son both Bithyrais and Cappadocia, which he had wrested from the feeble Greek or Eastern Empire. In 1338, the Ottomans first obtained a footing in Europe. In 1862, Amurath, the great grandson of Ottoman, instituted the Janizaries, who afterwards became the most formidable standing army of modern times. In 1866, Adrianople became the capital of the Turkish dominions, and remained such till 1453.

b. In 1453, Mahomet 2nd entered Constantinople after a brave defence by its last sovereign, Constantine Palaeologus, and by that event, terminated the Eastern Roman or Empire of the Greeks. In 1512, Selim 1st, the grandson of Mahomet 2nd, having been raised to the throne by the Janisaries, murdered his father and brothers, and added Syria and Egypt to his dominions. Solyman, the Magnificent, perhaps the greatest of the Turkish princes, ascended the throne in 1520, and conquered the greater part of Hungary. In the 16th century, the Turkish dominions included European and Asiatic Turkey, and the whole of Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, and Alpiers.

- c. In 1683, John Sobieski, King of Poland, totally defeated the Turkish army employed in the siege of Vienna. From that time, the power of the Turks began to decline. For a while, they continued to oppose the Austrians and Hungarians with varying success; but the victories of Prince Eugene of Savoy, in 1716 and 1717, expelled the Turks from Hungary, and gave the Austrians a decided superiority over them, which has not only been maintained but considerably extended. By degrees, province after province has been dismembered from her empire. Russia has already wrested from her Turkida, Bessarabia, and other provinces both in Europe and Asia, and would have seized upon others had not England and France prevented her. Eurosia is now almost independent, under a prince of the house of Hohensollern. Servic and Montenegro, also, pay merely a nominal boedience. Greece secured its independence in 1829. Egypt, though nominally subject, is under an hereditary Viceroy or Khediee; Tunts and Tripoti are held by slender ties; and Algeria now belongs to France. Turkey, indeed, may now be said to exist merely by sufference, and, principally, through the active influence of England and France, that the Balance of Power may be preserved, and the Emperor of Russia prevented from placing a branch of his family on the throne of Constantine.
- d. In 1853, to repel Russian Aggression, Turkey was compelled to declare War; and shortly afterwards, was assisted by England, France, and Sardinis. This is usually called The Criman War, as the Crima formed the principal scene of operations. The Russians were defeated by the allies in the battles of Alma, Sep. 20, 1854; Balakidva, Oct. 25; Inkermann, Nov. 5; Tchernaya, Aug. 16, 1855; and on Sept. 8, 1855, the Malakoff tower was taken by the French. In March 1855, the Emperor Nicholas died; but the war was continuted under his successor, Alexander 2nd. At length, Austria interceded in behalf of Russia (Dec. 12, 1855), and made proposals of Peace which were accepted by the allies as a basis of negotiation. In Feb. 1856, a suspension of hostilities was agreed upon; and on March 30, following, a Treaty of Peace was signed at Paris; and shortly afterwards, the Crimea was evacuated by the allied troops.
- e. In June 1861, on the death of the Sultan, Ab-dul Medjed, his brother Ab-dul Asix, the present sovereign (1872), ascended the throne, to the exclusion of his nephew, who was 21 years of age at the death of his father. In Nov. 1870, Russia, availing herself of the shattered condition of France and the known disinctination of England to engage in war, formally refused to adhere to the Treaty of 1856, regarding the Black Sea. In consequence of this declaration, a Conference of the great powers assembled in London on the subject. After several meetings, a new Black Sea Treaty was signed at the Foreign Office in London, March 18, 1871. In this, the principal points urged by Russia were eventually allowed, and consequently, war avoided.

LESSON 162,—TURKISH EUROPEAN TRIBUTARY PROVINCES.

- 435a. ROUMANIA.—ROUMANIA (anc. Dacia) consists of the United Provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia, lying North of the Danube, and formerly called the Danubian Provinces. These were united under one ruler or Hospodar in 1858, and under one administration in 1861, when the united provinces were called Roumania.
- b. The Area of Wallachia is 27,500 sq. m.; Pop. 2,400,000; Cap. BUCHAREST, p. 124. The Area of Moldavia is 18,142 sq. m.; Pop. 1,463,927; Provin. Cap. JASSY, p. 65. Total Area of Roumania, 45,642 sq. m.; Pop. 3,864,848; Cap. BUCHAREST.

Wallachia is divided into 18 administrative districts; Moldavia into 18, each district being under a Prefect or Governor.

- 436a. WALLACHIA.—The Surface is mountainous on the North; low and marshy in the South. The Rivers are the Danube and its branches—the Schyl, Aluta, Dumbovitza, Jalomnitza, &c. The Mountains are the Carpathians on the North.
- b. The Climate is hot and moist in Summer, and very cold in Winter. The Soil is in general very fertile; the chief Products are wheat, barley, rye, hemp, tobacco, and the vine. Forests are extensive, and pasturage excellent. Sheep and cattle are extensively reared. The chief Port is Brailov or Ibrail, pop. 6.
- 437a. MOLDAVIA.—The Surface is mountainous on the West; level towards the East. The chief Rivers are the Danube, with its branches the Pruth, Sereth, and Birbal. The Mountains are the Eastern Carpathians.
- b. The Climate is variable and frequently unhealthy, being hot in Summer and very cold in Winter. The Soil is fertile; the chief Products are grain, fruits, and wine. The Foretts are numerous; pasturage is good; great numbers of horses and cattle are reared. Manufactures are only of a domestic kind. The chief Port is Galatz on the Dahube, pop. 26.
- 438a. Government of Roumania.—Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen (a branch of the Prussian Royal Family) was elected Prince or Hospodar of Roumania on May 10, 1866; and was recognised as hereditary Hospodar by the Sultan, on Oct. 24, 1866. The Legislative Power is vested in the reigning Prince, a Senate, and a Chamber of Deputies. The Executive rests in the Prince and a responsible Council of five Ministers.
- b. The Tribute paid annually to Turkey is 40,0001. The Public Debt is nearly 2,000,0001. The Regular Army amounts to 13,000 men; the Militia to 60,000 more. The inhabitants are chiefly Wallachians, with a mixture of Jews, Gypsies, Greeks, and Armenians; the Language is a corrupt Latin; the Religion of the great majority of the people is that of the Greek Church.
- AS9a. Servia.—Servia (anc. Maesia Superior) lies South of the Danube; Area, 21,217 sq. m.; Pop. 1,098,281; Cap. Belgrade, p. 18. The Turks evacuated the citadel of Belgrade on March 1867. Servia is divided into 6 provinces and 13 districts.
- b. The Surface is mountainous, having on the West, branches of the Dinaric Alps, and on the South and East, the Balkan. The Rivers are the Danube, with its branches the Morava, Timok, and Drin. The Climate is healthy. The Soil is in general very fertile; the chief Products are wheat, hemp, flax, tobacco, and cotton. Much of the land is covered with forests. Horses, sheep, and cattle are bred in great numbers; pigs are almost countless, feeding wild in the oak forests. The Minerals are iron, copper, lead, mercury, and coal. Manufactures are of a domestic kine.
 - c. The Government is under an hereditary Prince, with two Legislative Chambers. The annual Tribute paid to Turkey is 28,0001.; the Revenue is about 477,0001. the Expenditure about the same. The Army amounts to 4,000 regulars; the Militia to .70,000. The Servians or Serbs are a fine race of Sclavonic descent; speak the Sclavonic Language, and belong to the Greek Church.
 - **450**a. Montenegro.—Montenegro (a part of ancient *Illýricum*) is a small mountain district, South of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The probable *Area* is 1,930 sq. m.; *Pop.* 196,238; *Cap. Cettigne*, a mere village in an elevated valley.
 - b. The Climate is healthy. The chief Products are maize, potatoes, and tobacco. Agriculture and fishing form the chief occupations of the people. The only Manufactures are those of coarse woollens. The inhabitants are of Belavonic origin, speak the Sclavonic Language, and belong to the Greek

Church. The ruling Prince is now styled *Hospodar*; his predecessors were called *Vladikas*, and combined the functions of Bishops, Civil Governors, and Commanders-in-chief. The present Hospodar has declined to assume ecclesiastical functions, and declares himself only a Temporal Prince.

LESSON 163.—GREECE.

- 441a. Physical.—Extent, &c.—Greece (anc. Graecia or Hellas) lies to the South of the Turkish Provinces Epīrus and Thessaly. The Area of the whole Kingdom, including the Ionian and Archipelago Islands, is about 20,145 sq. miles; Pop. 1,457,894; Cap. Athens.
- b. Seas, Gulfs, Straits.—On the East—the Archipelago, Channels of Trikeri, Talanta, and Egripo; Gulfs of Egina and Nauplia. On the South—Gulfs of Laconia and Koron. On the West—Gulfs of Arcadia, Patras, Corinth or Lepanto, and Arta; and the Ionian Sea.
- c. Islands.—1. Euboēa (or Negropont); 2. The Northern and Western Spor'ādes; 3. Northern Cyclădēs (namely, Andros, Syra, Zea, &c.); 4. Central Cyclădēs (namely, Milo, Naxos, Nio, Paros, and Antip'áros, &c.); 5. Southern Cyclădēs (namely, Santorin, Anaphi, &c.). 6. The Ionian Islands, ceded by England to Greece in 1864, the principal of which are—Corfu, Cephalonia, Zantě, Santa Maura, Itháca, Paxo, and Cerīgo.
- d. Capes.—Marathon and Colonna, in Attica; Skillo, Malea, Matapan, and Gallo on the E. and S. of the Morea; and Klarenza on the West.
- **442a.** Surface.—The Surface of Northern Greece may be said to be an alternation of mountains and valleys, abounding with short and rapid streams, none of which are navigable. The centre of the Morēa is an elevated table-land, traversed by numerous ridges of hills, which inclose spacious basins, some of which are occupied by marshes and small lakes. The Coasts are elevated, irregular, and deeply indented. Travellers, in general, speak in high terms of Grecian scenery, as presenting some of the finest views and greatest natural beauties that can be found anywhere.
 - b. Mountains.-Pindus, Öthrys, Œta, and Parnassus.
- c. Rivers.—Aspropot'ămos in the N.; Penēŭs, Alphēŭs, and Eurotas in the Morēa.
- d. Lakes.—There are numerous small lakes; the largest is Topolias (anc. Copais), in Bœotia.
- e. The Forests are numerous, consisting mostly of pine, with a mixture of oak, chestnut, and walnut.
- 443a. Climate.—The Climate on the whole is temperate and healthy, except in the low and marshy tracts adjoining some of the shores and lakes. In the vicinity of the Lakes, violent storms occur in spring and autumn. In summer, the sky is frequently cloudless for a month; but the heat is sometimes oppressive. The

winters at Athens are confined to Jan. and Feb.; in the interior they are longer.

b. The mean Annual Temperature on the Plains is about 60° Fahr., in the South about 64°; at Athens the thermometer in July is frequently above 100° Fahr. Rainfall.—Both Spring and Autumn are rainy seasons, and in December rains are so heavy that many parts of the country are laid under water; but, throughout Summer, which comprises about 6 months, a shower or a cloud in the sky is rare in several parts of the country.

222.—Soil, §c.—In the elevated districts there is much light or barren land; but, in the valleys, the soil is very fertile, producing, with only moderate cultivation, all the cereals, and the finest fruits in abundance.

b. The Minerals are rich and varied, but little worked. Marble and other building materials are abundant; lead, iron, and coal, and also gold and silver, are found in various parts. Hot and cold Mineral Springs are numerous.
c. The Wild Asimals comprise the bear, wolf, jackal, wild boar, and deer.

- **445**a. POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Greece is divided into three large Divisions; namely:—
 - 1. Northern or Continental Greece, formerly Turkish Livadia.
 - 2. The Mores or Peloponnesus.
- Insular Greece, including Eubosa or Negropont, the North Spor'ades, the Cyclădes, and the Ionian Islands, transferred by Great Britain to Greece in 1864.

Note.—The Government of Greece is laudably reviving the ancient Classical Names of the provinces, towns, mountains, &c., and discontinuing those formerly used under Turkish rule.

b. The preceding large divisions are subdivided into 10 Nomarchies, exclusive of the Ionian Isles; the nomarchies into 35 Eparchies; and these into 280 Demoi or communes. The following is a list of the Nomarchies, with the Areas and chief towns of each:—

Nomarchies.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.
1. Northern or Contin	ental Greece :-	
1. Attica and Bœōtia	. 2,475	ATHENS, 41; Livādia, 9.
 Pthiōtis and Phocis Acarnānia and Ætöl 		Lamia, 4. Measolonghi, 6.
2. The Morea or Pelo	ponnēsus :—	
4. Argölis and Corinth		Nauplia, 6; Argos, 9; Spezzia, 9; Hydra, 9.
Achaia and Elis .	. 2,005	Patras, 18.
6. Arcádia		Tripolitza, 7.
7. Messēnia	. 1,329	Kalamata, 6.
8. Lacônia	. 1,632	Sparta, 6.
3. Insular Greece:—		
9. Eubœa	. 1.699 (Chalcis, 4.
10. Cyclădes	1,060	Syra, 18.
Ionian Isles	1,000	Corfu, 25 ; Zanto, 25.
Total .	20,145	• • •

LESSON 164.—446a. Industrial Pursuits.—Agriculture, &c.—As much of the surface of Greece is rugged and uneven, it seems better adapted to pastoral than to agricultural pursuits. In the elevated and hilly districts, therefore, pasturage forms the chief occupation; while in the lower districts, agriculture is the main pursuit. The mode of farming, however, is very poor, and much of the land lies uncultivated.

- b. The vegetable Productions vary according to elevation. Wheat, barley, and Indian corn are mostly cultivated. The clive, fig. currant, vine, melons, rice, cotton, the orange and date thrive on the coasts, and in districts situated at an elevation of 1,600 ft. c. The principal domesic Animals are sheep and goats; horned cattle are not numerous. Bees, as of old, are extensively kept, for a great part of the surface abounds with aromatic plants, peculiarly adapted to the honey bee.
- 447a. Manufactures.—The Manufactures are confined to those of a coarse and domestic kind.
- b. Commerce, for which Greece is well adapted, has always been a principal source of their wealth, and before the war of independence in 1821, had been carried to a great extent. During that struggle it was nearly lost, but has since revived. The Exports from Greece to Great Britain consist of currants, valonia, cotton, oil, tobacco, figs, sponge, wines, emery, &c., the amount of which in 1870 was 986,7791. The Imports from Great Britain are cottons, hides, woollens, iron, coffee, coals, gunpowder, copper, sugar, &c., which in 1870 amounted to 629,1541. c. The ordinary Roads are wretched, except near the capital; and many of them are still infested by bands of robbers. d. The principal Ports are—Athens, Patras, Nauplia, Syra, Kalamata, Messolonghi, and Navarino.
- **448a.** Social Condition.—Government.—The Government, as determined by a constituent assembly in 1864, is a Constitutional hereditary Monarchy, with a single Legislative Chamber of Representatives of about 170 members, elected by universal suffrage for a term of four years. The Executive is vested in the King and 7 responsible Ministers, assisted by a deliberative Council of State.
- b. The Revenue in 1871 was 1,223,000L; the Expenditure about the same. The Public Debt in 1870 amounted to 8,326,000L. The Army, which is levied by conscription, amounted in 1869 to 14,700 officers and men. The Navy, which is also levied by conscription, consisted of 32 small vessels and gunboats. The mercantile Marine in 1886 comprised 4,070 vessels, and 23,800 seamen.
- **449a.** Religion.—The Greek Church is the established Religion, which in 1833 declared itself independent of its former head, the patriarch of Constantinople. The King of Greece is now the temporal head in the administration of the church, and the Archbishop of Athens the Metropolitan. There is complete toleration for all creeds.
- b. The Greek Church differs from the Romish in denying a state of purgatory, or that there are Seven Sacraments; in permitting the laity at the Eucharist to partake of both kinds (bread and wine); and in allowing the clergy to marry; in observing Easter at a different time, and in encouraging the free circulation of the Scriptures among all classes. The established Church is governed by a Synod annually elected. There are 15 Archbishops and 17 Bishops. The estates belonging to the Church are very large.
- **450a.** Education, &c.—Education is now principally under State control. There are four classes of schools—1. Primary or Lancasterian Schools, of which there is one in every commune; 2. Secondary or Middle Schools; 3. Gymnasia; and 4. the University of Athens.
- b. In the higher schools, instruction is given in the ancient and modern languages, in music, drawing, and geography, in addition to the ordinary elements. c. Longuage.—The Language is the Romaic, a modernised form of ancient Greek, from which it does not essentially differ.
- 451. Races, Character.—The modern Greeks regard themselves as the descendants from the old inhabitants of the country; but there is a large

admixture of Sclavonian with Hellenic blood. The inhabitants of Northern Greece have always maintained a kind of independence, and hence are restless and insubordinate. The peasantry of the plains in the North have largely intermixed with the Wallachians, Bulgarians, and Albanians, and are represented as a steady and quietly disposed people. The population of the towns, though chiefly Grecian, has received large accessions from other races. general, the Greeks are above the middle size and well-made; and remarkably preserve the fine physiognomy of their ancestors. The long oppression, to which they have been subject, has naturally had an influence in deteriorating their habits and principles. They are represented as lively, versatile, and patriotic; but vain and untruthful, keenly alive to trade, and not scrupulous about the means employed. Brigandage is still prevalent in many districts, and in April 1870, four English Tourists were murdered by brigands near Athens.

LESSON 165.—452. CHIEF TOWNS, ISLANDS, AND PLACES OF INTEREST.

Note.—Many places have resumed their ancient names; of those which retain the names given under Turkish rule, the ancient name is given in *Italics*.

An'dros, one of the Cyclades, 25 m. by 6 m., p. 16.
Antip'aros (anc. Olegros), 10 m. by 2 m.,

cel, for a stalactite cavern

Archipelago (anc. Egoum Mare), the sea bet. Greece and Asia Minor.

Argos, in the Morea, the most ancient city in Greece, p. 9.
Aspropotamo (anc. Achelous), a river in

Aspropotamo (anc. Academa), a river in N. Greece.
ATHEMS (anc. Athèmm), cap. of Greece, with many interesting remains, the residence of the sovereign, seat of a university, p. 41.

Castri (anc. De/phi), a vil. of N. Greece, South of Mt. Parnassus, once fam. for its temple of ApoRo; near it was the

cel. Castalian spring, sacred to the Muses.

Chalcis, cap. of the island of Eubosa, p. 4

Cerigo (anc. Cythèra), one of the Ionian isles: 4r. 116 sq. m., p. 14,500. Cephalònia (keph. anc. Cephalènia), the largest of the Ionian islands; 4r. 348

sq. m., p. 72,770.

Corfu (anc. Coregra), one of the Ionian isles, the second in size but first in importance; Ar. 227 sq. m., p. 64,500, cap. Corfa, p. 25; seat of a university. Corinth (anc. Corinthus), on the isthmus,

once a distinguished city and the seat of a Christian church founded by St.

Paul, p. 2.

Obtails, islands so-called because they encircled Delos, the most important though the smallest of them. The following are the principal, all of which belong to Greece:—1. Andros, 21 m. by 8 m. 2. Delos, once sacred to Apollo and formed the treasury of ancient Greece, is a barren rock, only 5 miles in circumference. 3. Jura (anc. Gydros). 4. Milo (anc. Melos). Ar. 65 sq. in. 5. Myköni (anc. Myconoe), 10 m. by 6 in., 5. Myköni (anc. MycZmos), 10 m. by 6 m., 6. 6. Naxia (anc. Nazos) 19 m. by 15 m. 7. Paros, 4r. 100 sq. m. 8. Rhenëa, about 10 m. in circumference, served as the burish-place of Delos. 9. Santorin (anc. Thera), 4r. 41 sq. m. 10. Serpho (anc. Serphos) used by the Romans as a place of banishment. 11. Siphno (anc. Skphnos), once cel. for its superior pottery. 13. Syra (anc. Syra), cel. for its wine. 13. Thermia (anc. Cythnos), once cel. for its cheeses. 14. Tino (anc. Times), a fertile island. 15. Zes (anc. Times), a fertile island. 15. Zes (anc. Ceos), 14 m. by 10 m.; bpl. of Simonides, the poet.

Egina or Ægina, an isle in the Gulf of

Ægina, 9 m. by 5 m., p. 7. Eulocea (or Negropont), an isle N.E. Greece, separated from the mainland by a narrow strait crossed by a bridge at its narrowest point. Length 115 m., breadth from 10 to 38 m., 4r. 1,454 sq. m., p. 65,300, cap. Chalcis, p. 5. Eurotas, a river in the Morea.

Hellcon, a mt. in N. Greece, once reputed

to be the abode of the Muses. Hellas, another name for Greece, but now

frequently applied to Northern Greece the district N. of the Gulf of Corinth. Hydra, one of Sporades, E. of the Morea;

Ar. 56 sq. m. p. 20, cap. Hydra, p. 9. Hymettus, a mt. S.E. of Athens, formerly, as now, famous for its bees.

LESSON 166.—Ithaca (or Thinki) one of the Ionian isles, once the King-dom of Ulysses; Ar. 38 sq. m., p. 12. Ionian Islands (ceded to England by the

onion Islands (ceded to England by the treaty of Vienna in 1815, and in 1804 transferred by England to the Kingdom of Greece), consist of Corfu, Cephalouis, Cerigo, Paxo, Santa Maura, Thiat, or Itmaca, Zante, with several smaller ones. The total Art is estimated at 1,008 sq. m., p. 234,123, cap. Corfu.
Kalamata, a scaport in Messenia, p. 6.
Lepanto (anc. Naupactus), in N. Greece,

with a good harbour, p. 2. Livadia, the former name given to Hellas or North Greece.

Maina, a mountainous district in the S. extremity of the Morea, on the S. of Laconia

Marathon, a vil. and plain 26 m. N.B. of Athens, cel. for the vict. of the Athe-nians over the Persians, B.C. 490.

Mat'apan, Cape (anc. Tenarium Promon-torium), S. of the Morea.

zorium), 8. of the Morea. Messolongivii (icong*-), a tn. W. of Hellas; nr. it in 1823, the Turks were def. by the Greeks, and nr. it Lord Byron, the poet, died, Ap. 1824, p. 6. Morea (anc. Felopomig* sus), the 8, portion of Greece: Ar. 8,688 sq. m., p. 552,414. Nalpils, or Nappil dl Romania, a seaport

in the Morea, p. 6.

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May'arino (ree-no, anc. Pylos), a scaport in the Morea, fam. for the def. of the Turkish and Egyptian fleets by the fleets of England, France and Russis in

ficets of England, France and Russia in 1877, p. 2.

Naxia (anc. Naxos), the largest of the Cyclades, 19 m. by 15 m., p. 13.

Olym'pis, a plain on the W. of the Morea, in the district of Elis, on the riv. Rufia, where the anc. Olympic Games were cel. every 4th year.

Parnas'sus, a cel. mt. in N. Greece, the fabled resort of Apollo and the Musea.

Paros, one of the Cyclades, cel. for its marble; Ar. 100 sq. m., p. 6.

Pätras (anc. Patros), a seaport of the Morea; here in 1821, the standard of revolt was first raised, p. 18.

Paxo, one of the Ionian Islands; Ar. 26

Paxo, one of the Ionian islands; Ar. 26

Paxo, one of the Ionian islands; Ar. 26 sq. nn. p. 5,070.

Pirsus, the port of Athens, 5 m. from that city, p. 6.

Plates, now a vill. 6} m. from Thehes in Bootia, cel. for a vict. of the Greeks over the Persians, B.C. 479.

Salámis, one of the Sporades, in the Guif of Ægins; bpl. of Solon and Euripidës, cel. for a vict. of the Greeks over the Persians, B.C. 480: A. 70 sq. m. p. 5. Persians, B.C. 480; Ar. 30 sq. m., p. 5.
Santa Maura (anc. Leucadia), one of the
Ionian islands; Ar. 180 sq. m., p. 20.150.

Santorin (anc. Thera), one of the Cyclades;

Ar. 41 sq. m., p. 13.
Skyros (Scyros), an isle E, of Eubosa;
Ar. 60 sq. m., p. 2,600.
Sparta (New), or Mistra, a tn. of Laconia,
in the Morea, 2 m. W. of the ruins of

ancient Sparta, p. 6.

Spezzia, one of the Sporades; Ar. 26

sq. m., p. 9,800.
Sporddes, or "the scattered isles," are those not included in the Cyclades, and belong partly to Turkey and partly to Greece, namely:—

The Turkiek Sporades are—Crete, Scarpanto, Rhodes, Cos, Kalimno, Patmos, Nicaria, Samoa, Scio, Mitjließ, Lemnos, Imbros, Samothraki, Thasos, and the other islands near the coasts of Asia and Rurope. These have been already enumerated under Turker. 1. The Turkish Sporades areenumerated under Turkey.

2. The Greek Sporades comprise Skiatho (Scidthus), Skopelo, Kilidromi (Peparëthus), Skyros (Scyros), Ægina, Salamis, Hydra, Spezia, &c., the 4 last retaining their ancient names.

their ancient names. Syra (anc. Syros), one of the Cyclades; Ar. 55 sq. m. p. 18,500.
Thêbes, in Bœotis, N. Greece, founded by Cadmus; bpl. of Hesiod, Pindar, Epaminondas, and Pelopidas, p. 9.
Thermopylies, a cel. pass in the S. of Thessaly, the scene of many struggles of ancient Greece, particularly of Leonica against the army of Xerxes, W. 480. B.C. 480.

B.C. 490.
Thos (and. Tenos), one of the Cyclades;
Ar. 87 sq. m., p. 15,800.
Tripolitza, in the Morea, nr. and. Mantinda, suffered severely in the war of independence, when it was razed to the ground, but has since been rebuilt, p. 7.
Eanté (anc. Zacynthus), one of the Ionian isles, cel. for its currants; Ar. 164 sq. m., p. 39.
Zéa (anc. Ceos), one of the Cyclades, p. 5.

p. 5.

LESSON 167.—SUMMARY OF THE RACES, CHARACTER, AND INSTITUTIONS OF THE ANCIENT GREEKS.

- 453a.—Græcia was a term applied to the country by the Romans, and has been adopted by modern nations. The inhabitants called the country Hellas. and themselves Hellènes. After the conquest of the country by the Romans, and the capture of Corinth by the Roman General Mummius in 146 B.C., the Central and Southern parts were reduced to a Roman Province, and called thenceforward ACHAIA
- b. Races.—The Pelasgi, who were originally settled in the S. of Thessaly, are considered as having been the oldest inhabitants of Greece, and from whom the great majority of the people most probably sprung. The Hellenic race was divided by the Greeks themselves into 4 large Clans or Tribes, the Derians, Æclians, Ionians, and Achæans. In the district of Laconia, the Dorians or Spartans were the ruling caste; the Periæci, or "dwellers outside the walls," though individually free, had not the rights of citizenship, nor that of voting the general assemblies; the *Helots* were serfs, who were either captives taken in war, or the descendants of such.
- c. Character.—The Greeks were a highly civilised and polished people, cultivating with diligence the Arts and Sciences, Commerce and Agriculture. Their Poets and Orators, Historians and Philosophers, were the most eminent in the world, whose productions contain maxims of the greatest value, and serve to this day as models of excellence. In practical political Wisdom, however, the Greeks were very deficient, as the division of the country into numerous petty Greeks were very deficient, as the division of the country into numerous petify, independent States, frequently at war with each other, abundantly testifies. The jealousy, too, with which they regarded their distinguished men, and the ill-treatment to which they frequently subjected them, exhibit the evils of unrestrained Democracy. With regard to Religion and Morality, the Greeks were practically Polytheists, offering sacrifices in temples to numerous gods. The prevailing entiments were derogatory to human nature, being calculated the excite, instead of checking the violence of the passions; clearly showing, that

men, when left to themselves, neither know God aright, nor cultivate those qualities and habits which are essential to the comfort and well-being of society.

- d. Institutions and Games.—Though the various States were independent of each other, yet the Institutions and Games served as a bond of National brotherhood. Of these the following were the principal: 1. The Amphictyonic Cosscii, which met twice a year, in the Spring at Delphi, and in the Autumn at Thermopyles. It consisted of representatives from each of 12 tribes, who decided on all matters respecting international law, and the preservation and dignity of the temple of Delphi. Its decisions were held sacred, and arms were taken up to enforce them.
- 2. The Oracles were responses given to questions respecting future events. The most celebrated was that at Delphi, where the priestess, called the Pythia, seated on a tripod over a chasm in the earth, professed to be inspired by Apollo, when her utterances were interpreted by the attendant priests.
- 8. The Arcop'dgus was the high council or tribunal held on the Hill of Mars at Athens, where the members met during the night. It was composed of the most honourable men in the State, who took cognisance of capital crimes, controlled all issues from the public treasury, and exercised a censorship over the conduct of the citizens. From its decisions there was no appeal. It was on Mars' Hill that St. Paul preached to the Athenians (Acts zvii. 22).
- 4. Ostracism was a vote of banishment for 10 years by the citizens of Athens against any one whom they disliked, 6000 votes being deemed sufficient. The votes were written on a shell (δστρακον, ostrakon), whence the name.
- 5. Of the national Games, the Olympic were the most important. They were celebrated once every 4 years at Olympia, a plain in Elis. The interval of time between each was called an Olympiad. The Olympic Games were of great antiquity, and were revived by lphitus in 776 E.C., from which date the Olympiads are generally reckoned. None were allowed to contend in these games but freemen of pure Hellenic origin, unstained by crime or immorality. The contests consisted of athletic exercises, wrestling, boxing, foot and chariot races, and also of contests in music, poetry, and oratory. The victorious orators were crowned with garlands of wild olive.

The other Games were the Pythian, Nemean, and Isthmian. The Pythian were next in importance to the Olympic, and were of the same kind. They were clebrated every fifth year in honour of Apolio, near Delphi. The Nemean, held at Nemëa, a city of Argölls, N.W. of Mycenae, were celebrated twice in every Olympiad. They were first held to commemorate the death of Opheltes, and revived by Hercules after he had slain the Nemean ilon. They consisted of horse-racing, running in armour, wrestling, chariot-racing, throwing the spear, &c. The prize was first a chaplet of clive branches, and afterwards of green parsley. The Isthmian Games were celebrated in the Isthmus of Corinth, in the first and third year of each Olympiad, and were similar to those of Olympia. The prize was a garland of pine leaves, and afterwards a versath of tyy.

- c. Of eminent Greeks, the following may be mentioned, with the dates when they lived:—1. Poets.—Homor, epic. 907 B.C. Hesiod, descriptive, 735 B.C. Sappho, tyric, 800 B.O. Anaoreon, 1971c, 474 B.C. Exsephius, tragedy, 455 B.C. Pindar, 1yric, 435 B.C. Aristophines, comedy, 407 B.C. Euripides, tragedy, 407 B.C. Sophöcles, tragedy, 406 B.C. Theoritus, pastoral, 285 B.C. Callimachus, elegiac, 244.
- 2. Historians.—Herodotus, 413 B.C. Thucydides, 391 B.C. Xenophon, 359 B.C. Polybius, 124 B.C. Diodorus Siculus, 44 B.C. Plutarch, biography, 119 A.D.
 - 3. Orators.-- Machines, 350 B.C. Isocrates, 336 B.C. Demosthenes, 313 B.C.
- 4. Philosophers and Mathematicians.—Socrătēs, 400 B.C. Plato, 348 B.C. Aristotle, 330 B.C. Theophrastus, 288 B.C. Euclid, math., 277 B.C. Epicurus, 270 B.C. Zeno, founder of the Stoic philosophy, 264 B.C. Archimedes, math., 208 B.C.
 - 5. Legislators.-Lycurgus, 825 B.C. Draco, 621 B.C. Solon, 590 B.C.

LESSON 168.—454a. ANCIENT GREECE.—ANCIENT GREECE, in a limited sense, was bounded on the N. by Illyria and Macedonia, and was in leugth about 250 miles and breadth about 180 miles. But in a wider sense, it included Macedonia. It admitted of three Great Divisions: 1. Northern; 2. Central; 3. Southern.

1. NORTHERN GREECE.

b. Northern Greece, in the enlarged sense, comprised 1. Macedonia, corresponding to the West portion of modern Runella: 2. Thesaita on the E., corresponding to modern Thessay; and 3. Epirus on the West, now Albania.

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- 455a. Macedonia was bounded on the N. by Mossia, and on the E. by Thracia.
 - b, Its chief Mountain was ATHOS.
- c. The chief Rivers were Axius, Vardar; Strumen, Strume; Hällacmon, Vistritea.
 d. The chief Tours were—Pella, the capital; Philippi; Amphip'ölie; Metröne;
 PYDNA; EDESSA; Heraclea; Neapölis, Kavallo; Potidra, Pinake; Thessalomica, Salontit; Berga, Vorta.
- **4.56**a. THESSALIA was bounded on the N. by Macedonia, and on the E. by the Ægæan Sea.
- Its chief Mountains were Olympus; Cambünii Montes, Ossa, Pelion, Pindus, and Gta.
 - c. Its Rivers were—Perëus, Lettemus, Enipeüs, and the Apidisus. The Lake—Borbëis now Karia.
- d. Its chief Towns were Larissa, Larissa: Pherm, Volcetino; Pharealus, Fergala; Therm, Ale Keijel; Deretras; Jölchus; Melibura: Trachis.
- 457a. EPIRUS was bounded on the N. by Illyria and Macedonia, and on the E. by Thessaly.
- b. The Mountains were—Pindus, Ceraunii Montes, and the prom. of Acrocu-Raunia, Linguitta.
 - c. Rivers-Achelous now Aspropolamo; Arachthus, Aria; Acheron, Guria.
- d. Chief Tribes-Chaönes, whence Chaonia; Thespecti, whence Theopretia; Molossi, whence Molossia.
- e. Chief Toions—Phienice, Nicopölis, Dodöna, Passaron, Abgithëa, Ambracia now Arta.

2. CENTRAL GREECE.

- 458. CENTRAL GREECE comprised the following 9 States: On the West—1. Acaradata; 2. Etölia; 3. Western Locris; 4. Doris; 5. Phocis. On the East—6. Eastern Locris; 7. Bestia; 8. Attica; 9. Megdris. All these are comprised in Lieddia, or Modern Helias.
 - b. Chief Towns in-
 - 1. Acarnania-Argos, Neokhori; Anactorium, Madonna.
 - 2. Ætölia-THERMUM, Vlokho; CALYDON.
 - 3. West Locris-NAUPACTUS, Lepanto; AMPHISSA, Salona.
 - 4. Doris -ERINEUS.
 - 5. Phocis-DELPHI, Kastri; CRISSA and ANTIOTRA.
 - 6. Rast Locris-OPUS.
 - 7. Bestia-Thebes, Cheronés, Orchoménus, Plates.
 - 8. Attica-Athena, Athena; Eleusis, Marathon.
 - 9. Megăris, Megăra.
- c. Chief Mountains—Parmassus in Phocis; Helicon and Cithenou in Beectia, and Hymettus in Attica.

LESSON 169 .- 3. SOUTHERN GREECE, OF PELOPONNESUS.

- 459a. THE PELOFONNESUS, now called the Morēa, comprised the following: On the North—1. Corinthia; 2. Sicyona; 3. Achdia. On the East—4. Argolis. On the South—5. Laconia; 6. Messenia. On the West—7. Elis. In the Centra—8. Arcddia.
 - b. The chief Towns were in-
 - 1. Corinthia-Corinthus, the cap.; CENCHREE.
 - 2. Sicyonia—SICYON.
 - 3. Achdia-Pellene, Tzerkovi; ÆGIUM.
 - 4. Argolis-ARGOS; NAUPLIA, Nauplia; MYCENE, Kharvati.
 - 5. Laconia SPARTA, Sparta or Mistra.
 - 6. Messenia-Pylus, Methone, Modon; Messans.
 - 7. Elis-Elis, Paleopoli; OLYMPIA.
 - 8. Arcadia-Mantinka, Tripolitza; Megalopolis; Stymphalus.
 - & Chief Mountains... TAYGETUS, ERYMANTHUS, MANALUS.
 - d. Rivers-RURŌTAS, ALPHEUS, PENEUS.

e. Chief Islands in the Zawan Sea-

IMBROS, Embro; Lemnos, Stalimone; Samothradia, Samothrakis; Thabos, Scharbus, Stitatho; Sourdo, Skyro; Ralamis; Ægina, Ægina; Euscha, Negropont (1.90 m., dr. 4 m. to 30 m., ch. the. Chalcus and Erbetral).

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The CYCLADES, so called from their forming a circle (iv rúnle) around Delos, the smallest but the most important island. The principal were CEOS now Zea; SERIPHOS, Serpho; PAROS, Paro; NAXOS, Nazia; DELOS, once sacred to Apollo, now Datles; SYROS, Syra; ANDROS, Andro.

Next were the SPORADES or "scattered" islands, of which the chief were-MELOS, Milo; OLEKBOS, Antiparo.

CRETA, now Candia, inl. 160 m., br. 30 m., lies to the South. To the North of Crete lies CYTERRA, now Cerigo.

In the Ionian Sea near Epirus lies Corotra now Corfu. Off the coast of Acardenia lie LEUGADIA, Santa Maura; Chephalonia; Itelica, Thiaki; S. of these, Zantzerhus, Zanta.

. Note to the Student.—The connected History of Ancient Greece may be learned from any one of the popular works on that subject already published. The events mentioned in the following Lesson are connected only with the decline of Greece, and its final subjection to Rome.

ZEMESON 170,—460a. HISTORY.—After the Battle of Chaeronaea in 338 B.C., Philip, King of Macedon, obtained a powerful influence over the States of Greece, which had hitherto been independent. This influence was greatly augmented by Philip's son and successor, the celebrated Alexander the Great, who was appointed Generalissimo over all the Greeks. On the death of Alexander in 323 B.C., his empire was, after a'series of bloody contests, divided into 4 great Monarchies, of which Macedon and Greece fell to the share of Causander, one of Alexander's generals. Cassander and his successors, to maintain their sovereignty, placed garrisons in several of the more important cities. To resist this infringement of their liberties, and to expel the Macedonians from the Peloponnesus, Achaia and several other states formed a Confederacy in 281 B.C., embraced Athens, Megara, Ægina, Salamis, and the whole of the Peloponnesus, except Sparta, Elis, Teges, Orchomenos, and Mantinea. After existing for some time, one party called in the aid of the Romans to resist the encroachments of the Macedonians. This led to the wars between Macedon and Rome, when, after a series of conflicts, Perseus, King of Macedon, was defeated and led captive to Rome, B.C. 167, and his kingdom formed into a Roman Province. Soon after the reduction of Macedonis, the Romans found a pretext for quarrelling with, and attacking their former silies. Coriath was captured and burnt by Mummius, the Roman General, in 146 B.C.; the Achaian League was broken up, and the whole of Central and Southern Greece conquered and formed into a Roman Province, under the name of ACHAIA. Henceforward, Greece became a part of the Roman Empire.

- b. In 330 a.d., Constantine the Great transferred the seat of Imperial Power from Rome to Byzantium in Thrace, which was afterwards called from the emperor CONSTANTIOPIE. In June 364 A.D., a division of the Roman Empire was solemnly made by the emperor Valentinian, who bestowed on his brother Valent the rich Prefecture of the East, from the Lower Danube to the confines of Persia, whilst he reserved for his own immediate government the Western portion, including the Prefectures of Illyricum, Italy, and Gaul, from the extremity of Greece to the Caledonian rampart in Britain. The Emperor of the East retained as his fixed capital Constantinople. From this date, the Eastern or Greek Emperors continued to reign in Constantinople from A.D. 364 to 1204. In the year 1204, the throne of Constantine was usurped by Baldwin, the first of the Latin Emperors who reigned there through the influence of the Crusaders. These occupied the throne from 1204 to 1261 A.D. In 1261, Michael Paleolópsus recovered the throne of Constantine from the Latin usurper Baldwin 2nd. The Greek Emperors, thus restored, reigned at Constantinople from 1261 A.D. to 1438, when Constantine Paleologus, the last of the line, was killed fighting bravely against the Turks.
- c. In 1483 A.D., the Turks took Constantinople, and thus put an end to the Greek, or Eastern Roman Empire. All the inhabitants were then reduced, if not to abject slavery, at least to a state of the lowest degradation. The whole country remained under the despotic sway of the Turks till 1821, when the Greeks once more asserted their claim to national independence. At first, they were success-

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ful, but disasters quickly followed. For seven years the struggle was protracted, and marked on both sides by many atrocious cruelties. The Greeks succeeded in clearing the Mores of their enemies, and defeating them by sea. The Porte, unable to subdue them, called in the aid of the Pasha of Egypt, who, with a well-disciplined army, invaded and subdued the Morea. At last, the sympathy of the Christian nations was fully aroused, and Great Britain, France and Russia resolved to put a stop to the war of extermination. The victory of Navarino, gained by the allied fleets in Oct. 1827, obliged the Egyptian forces to evacuate the Morea. A Conference held in London in March 1829 established the principle on which the independence of Greece should be secured, and the Sultan was induced to acknowledge it in the treaty of Adrianople in Sept. of the same year. In Jan. 1830, the complete Independence of Greece was settled by the Conference held in London.

d. When the independence of Greece had been secured, Count John Capodistria was appointed President of the government for seven years; but falling to give satisfaction, an insurrection took place in which the Count was murdered, and the country seemed on the verge of anarchy. At last, the allied powers offered the crown to Prince Leopold of Sax-Coburg, who declined it, and next to Otho, the second son of the King of Bavaria, then a minor, who accepted it. In 1835, Otho being declared of age, assumed the direction of the affairs of state. The Government was for several years nearly absolute; at last, on the refusal of establishing a representative form of government, a Revolution took place in Sept. 1845, when Otho was compelled to accede to the wishes of the country by dismissing his obnoxious Bavarians, and granting a Liberal Constitution. Upon the violation of this in 1863, another Revolution occurred, which terminated by expelling Otho, and placing on the throne in Nov. 1863, a prince of Denmark, second son of King Christian, with the title of Gronge 18tr. George 1st was born Dec. 24, 1845; elected King of the Hellênês, March 30, 1863; and married Oct. 27, 1867, Olya, eldest daughter of the Grand Duke Constantine of Russia.

THE ANCIENT WORLD.

LESSONS 171, 172, 173.—The World, as known to the ancient Greeks and Romans about 98 Anno Domini.

461.—The ancient Greeks and Romans knew only portions of three of the great divisions of the World-Europe, Asia, and Africa.

- a. In **Europe**, they knew very little of the countries north of Germany, now Norway and Sweden, which they called Scandināvia. Modern Russia, which was called Sarmatia or Scythia, was also unknown to them.
- b. In Asia they knew nothing north of the Caspian Sea, but comprehended all the country under the name of Scythia intra Imaum (or Scythia on this side Imaus, part of the Altai range), and Scythia extra Imāum, or Scythia beyond the Imāus. The North-West part of modern China was called Serica, of which they had only a confused notion, the South was called Sinas. India they knew as far as the Gulf of Tonquin.
- c. In Africa, they knew only Egypt, Cyrene, and the countries north of the Zahara Desert.

462. Ancient Europe. Europe comprised the following countries:-

Ancient Names.

Modern Countries.

1. SARMĂTIA,

now Russia in Europe.

2. Scandināvia,

Sweden and Norway.

3. CHERSONËSUS CIMBRICA, "

Jutland and Sleswick.

4. SAXONES. ,,

Holstein, Hanover, &c.

5. Frisii,

Holland.

- 6 a. Germania, comprised the Northern part of modern Germany. a portion of Holland, and the West part of Poland.
 - b. Germania Inferior comprised a part of Belgium.
- 7 a. Gallia or Gallia Transalpīna, comprised modern France, Belgium, Luxemburg, the West part of Switzerland, and part of Germany West of the Rhine.
- b. Gallis Transalpina, that is, Gallia North of the Alps, was so called to distinguish it from Gallia Cisalpina, lying South of the Alps and North of Italy. In Cassar's time, Gallia Transsipina was divided into 4 large districts:—namely, 1. Romana Provincia, the Roman Province on the South-East; 2. Aquitania, between the Garumna and Pyrenees; 3. Celiza, in the centre, and 4. Belgica, between the Sequana and the Rhine. Afterwards, the name Narbonensis was substituted for that of Romdina Provincia; Advitanta on the South-West was enlarged; Lugdunensis, from the cap. Lugdunum now Lyons, was substituted for Celifica, while Belgica continued the same.
 - 8 a. HISPANIA, now Spain and Portugal.
- b. Hispania was called by the Greeks Ibëria from the Ibërus, and Hesperia from its westerly position. It was at first divided into Citerior or Northern, and.

Utterior or Southern. Afterwards, into three Provinces—1. Tarraconensis on the North and Centre; 2. Bastica on the South, and Lusitania on the West, which comprised the greater part of modern Portugal.

- 9. VINDELICIA, comprised the N.-E. of Switzerland, the S.-E. of Baden, the S. of Wurtenburg and Bavaria, and N. of the Tyrol.
- RHARTIA comprised the modern Grisons, and the greater part of Tyrol.
- 11. Nonicum comprised portions of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniòla, Bavaria, and Tyrol.
- 12. PANNONIA comprised the E. part of Austria, Carinthia, Carniōla, S.-W. of Hungary, Slavonia, and part of Croatia and Bosnia.
- 13. ILLYBICUM comprised Dalmatia, Herzegorina, Monte-Negro, with parts of Croatia, Bosnia, and Albania.
 - 14. Moesia comprised modern Servia and Bulgaria.
- 15. Dacia comprised the Banat of Temesvar, Hungary E. of the Theiss, Transylvania, the Bukowina, the S. part of Gallicia, and Moldavia W. of the Pruth, and Wallachia.
 - 16. THRACIA comprised the E. part of Turkish Rumelia.
 - 17. MACEDONIA comprised the W. part of Rumelia.
- 18 a. Grecia Antiqua, comprised a little more than modern Greece, being bounded on the N. by Illyria and Macedonia, on the E. by the Ægæan Sea, on the S. by the Cretan, and on the W. by the Ionian Sea. Its greatest length was 250 miles, and breadth 180 miles.
 - b. For the Geography of Gracia Antiqua, see Lesson 168, p. 255.
- 19 a. ITALIA ANTIQUA corresponded to Modern Italy, being bounded on the N. by Helvetia, Rhaetia, and Norïcum; on the E. by the Adriatic; on the S. by the Ionian Sea; and on the W. by the Mediterranean Sea and Gallia Transalpīna.
- b. For the Geography of Ancient Italy, see Lessons 152, 153, 154, p. 235 to p. 237.
- 20 a. Britannia Romana comprised England, Wales, and the S. of Scotland.
 - 5. For the Geography of Britannia Romana, see Lesson 46, p. 58.
- 21. BRITANNIA BARBĂRA OF CALEDONIA comprised Central and Northern Scotland.
 - 22. HIBERNIA OF IERNE, modern Ireland.

LESSONS 174, 175, 176.—463. Islands.—INSÜLÆ BRITANNÏCÆ, the British Isles; Sicilia, Sicily; Melīta, Malta; Gaulos, Gozo; Lipāreæ Insulæ, the Lipari Islands; Sardinia, Sardinia; Corsīca, Corsica; the Islands in the Ægæan and Ionian Seas, among which are Salāmis, now Kuluri; Ægīna, Egina; Eubrea, now Negropont; the Cýcládes, islands which encircled Delos; the

Sporades or scattered islands; Crāta, now Candia; Cythèra, now Cerigo; the Ionian Islands including Corcyra, now Corfu, and many others.

- **464.** Peninsulas; namely, Chersonēsus Cimbrica, now Jutland and Sleswick; Prloponnēsus, the Morēa; Chersonēsus Taurica, the Crimēs.
- 465. Mountains. Pṛrènæi Montes, Pyrénēës; Alpes, the Alps; Apennīni, the Apennīnes; Haemus, Balkan, in Turkey Carpātes, Carpathian; Vesuvius, Vesuvius; Ætna, Etna.
- **466.** Seas, &c.—Pontus Euxinus, the Black Sea; Palus Mæðtis, Sea of Azof; Peopontis, Sea of Marmöra; Bospòrus Cimmerius, Straits of Yenikälš; Bospòrus Theacius, Straits of Constantinople; Hellespontus, the Dardanelles; Mare Ægæum, the Archipel'ago; Mare Marnum or Invernum, the Mediterranean; Mare Myrtòum, the sea on the E. of the Peloponnësus; Mare Creticum, the sea near Crete; Mare Iontum, the sea W. of Greece; Mare Adriatic; M. Tyrrhenum, the sea W. of Italy; Frètum Gaditānum, Straits of Gibraltar; Oceanus Atlantícus, the Atlantic Ocean. The branches of the Atlantic Ocean were:—Oceanus Cantáber, Bay of Biscay; M. Britannicum, E. part of the Channel as far as the Straits of Dover; Fretum Gallicum, Straits of Dover; M. Gremanicum, German Ocean; M. Sarmaticum, Baltic Sea; Sinus Codànus, the Kategat.
- 467. Lakes.—L. Lemannus, L. of Genèva; L. Brigantinus, L. of Constance; L. Verbänus, L. Maggiore; L. Larius, L. Como; L. Sebinus, L. Iseo; L. Trasimēnus, L. of Perugia.
- 468. Rivers.—Rha, the Volga in Russia; Tyras, the Dniëster in S. Russia; Borysthenes, the Dniēper in Russia; Tanăis, the Don in Russia; Danubeus or Ister, the Danube in Austria and Turkey; Vistula, the Vistula in Prussia; Albis, the Elbe in Germany; Rhenus, the Rhine between France and Germany; Sequăna, the Seine in France; Liger, the Loire in France; Garuma, the Garonne in France; Rhodănus, the Rhone in France; Iberus, the Ebro in Spain; Tagus, the Tagus in Spain; Durius, the Douro in Spain; Betis, the Guadalquiver in Spain; Pădus, the Po, and Tiberis, the Ther in Italy; Tamésis, the Thames, Sabrīna, the Severn, and Abūs, the Humber in England.

Exercises.—Maps should be drawn of the principal countries, and Questions proposed.

ANCIENT ASIA.

LESSONS 177, 178, 179.—469. The following were the principal countries in Asia Antiqua corresponding to the modern, the names of which are attached:—

Ancient.

Modern.

1 a. Asia.

Asia Minor or Anatolia.

b. The Peninsula of Asia Minor included the following 14 countries:— On the West—1. Mysia, 2. Lydia, 8. Caria. On the South—4. Lycia, 5. Pamphylia, 6. Cilicia. In the Interior—7. Cappadocia, 8. Lycathia, 9. Pirldia, 10. Phrygia, 11. Galatia. In the North—12. Billipnia, 13. Paphlagonia, 14. Pontus.

SYRIA and PHORNICIA.
ARABIA.

Syria. Arabia.

Arabia retains its ancient name and divisions, namely, Arabia Deserta, Petraa, and Felix. Arabia comprehended Uz, the country of Job; Edom or Idumaa, on the North; Madian, the country of Jethro, and Sheba, the country of the Queen of Sheba,

Palestine or the Holy Land. PALÆSTINA, ARMENIA. Armenia and Kurdistan, in pt. ASSYRIA. Kurdistan. MESOPOTAMIA. Algesira. BABYLÖNIA and CHALDEA. Irak-Arabi. Mingrelia. COLCHIS. IBŘRIA. Georgia. ALBANIA. Shirwan and Daghestan, in Russia. SARMATIA ASIATICA. The West part of Asiatic Russia. MEDIA. Azerbijan, Irak-Ajemi, &c. Fars, a prov. of Persia. PERSIS. STISTĀNA. Khuzistan in Persia. PARTHIA. Kohistan, and part of Khorāsan. GEDRŌSIA. Beloochistan. East of Khorasan, and West of Asıa. Afghanistan. Balk. BACTRIA. SOGDIĀNA. Bokhāra. INDIA INTRA GANGEM. Hindostan. Birmah, Anam, &c. INDIA EXTRA GANGEM. Cochin China, and S. of China. SINÆ. N.-W. of China. SERICA. SCYTHIA. Thibet, Tartary, part of Siberia. TAPROBĂNĒ Ceylon.

LESSON 180.—470. Seas, &c.—Ocranus Indicus, Indian Ocean; Magnus Sinus, Gulf of Siam; Sinus Gangericus, Bay of Bengal; Mare Erytherum, Arabian Sea; Persious Sinus, Persian Gulf; Arabicus Sinus, Red Sea; Mare Caspium, Caspian Sea.

471. Mountains.—TAURUS and ANTI-TAURUS; ABUS, Ararat; EMODI MONTES, Himalayahs; CAUCASUS; IMAUS, either the Altai or Tian-Shan range.

472. Chief Rivers.—EUPHRÄTES, TIGRIS, INDUS, and GANGES, which retain their ancient names; HYDASPES, Jelum; HYPANIS, Sutlej; JAXARTES, Sir-deria; OXUS, Jyhun; CYRUS, Kur; ARAXES, Aras.

ANCIENT AFRICA.

LESSOW 181. — **473** a. In Africa, the ancients knew only Egyptus, Æthiopia, and the countries north of the Zahara.

b. The term Africs originally meant that portion of the country adjacent to Carthage, and which belonged to the Romans, but was afterwards applied to the Continent in general. The term Libys also, was at first applied only to the district W. of Egypt, but was afterwards extended to the whole Continent.

474. Ancient Countries. Modern.

Ægyptus. Eaunt.

Egypt was divided into 3 principal Districts—1, Lower Egypt or the Delta on the N.; 2. Heptanomis in the centre; 3. Upper Egypt or Theòāis in the S.—Goshen, the district occupied by the Israelites, lay between the Delta and the Arabian Desert.—There were two Uases connected with Egypt; Oasis Magna, opposite to Theòa the cap. of Theòdis, and Oasis Parva, N. of it, and opposite to Hermopolis Magna.

ÆTHIŌPIA-now Nubia, Sennaar, Abyssinia.

Napāta was the Northern cap., and Meroë the Southern.

MARMARICA, CYRENAÏCA (or *Pentapŏlis*, a confederacy of five cities)—now Barca.

TRIPOLITANA, or Syrtica Regio-now Tripoli.

AFRICA PROPRIA-now Tunis.

This district was early colonised by the Phœnicians; Carthago, the cap., was long the powerful rival of Rome, and contained about 700,000 inhabitants. Its skilful generals Hannibal, Hamilcar, and Hasdrubal, played a conspicuous part in its wars with Rome. At Urica, a port of Carthage, Cato, the younger, destroyed himself.

Numidia—now Algeria.

MAURETANIA-now Morocco and Fez.

The GAETULI and GARAMANTES occupied Southern Barbary. LIBYA INTERIOR, or Zahāra.

475 a. Islands.—Insulæ Fortunātæ, the Canaries.

- . b. Mountain .- ATLAS, Atlas.
 - c. Gulfs.—Syrtis Major, Sidra; Syrtis Minor, Cabes.
 - d. River.—NILUS. the Nile.

LESSON 182.—The Roman Empire.

476. THE ROMAN EMPIRE was at its widest extent AT THE DEATH OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT, A.D. 387. It then embraced the following countries:—

1. Italia and the	10. Dacia, to the	20. Palæstīna,
Islands,	Danube,	21. Ægyptus,
2. Hispania,	11. Moesia,	22. Libya and
3. Gallia,	12. Græcia,	Cyprus,
4. Britannia,	13. Macedonia,	23. Tripčlis,
5. Germānia, W.	14. Thracia,	24. Pentapŏlis,
pt. to the Weser,	15. Asia Minor,	25. Africa Propria,
6. Rĥætia,	16. Armēnia,	26. Numidia (the
7. Noricum,	17. Mesopotamia,	Kingdom of
8. Pannonia,	18. Syria,	Jugurtha).
9. Illyricum,	19. Phœnicia,	27. Mauretania.

In A.D. 312, Christianity was established throughout the Roman Empire by Constantine the Great; and the seat of Empire was transferred from Rome to Constantinople in A.D. 330.

LESSON 183.—Division of the Roman Empire into

- 477 a. Shortly after the nomination of Valentinian to be Emperor, he determined upon the division of the Empire into two parts; one of which should be under his own command, and the other under his brother, Valens, whom he had raised to the dignity of Augustus. After a short delay at Constantinople, the two brothers proceeded to Naissus in Moesia, the birthplace of Constantine the Great, where they executed a solemn and final Division of the Roman Empire, June, A.D. 364, into the Eastern and Western Empires. Valentinian reserved for himself the Western Empire, with Milan as a temporary Capital; while Valens obtained the Eastern Empire, with Constantinople as the Capital.
- b. THE WESTERN ROMAN EMPIRE embraced—Italia and Islands; Illýricum; Pannônia; Noricum and Rhætia; Gallia; Hispania; Britannia; Africa Propria; Byzācium and Tripŏlis; Numidia, Mauretānia, and Tingītāna.
- c. The Eastern Roman Empire embraced—Græcia, Macedônia, and Thrācia; Moesia and Dacia; Asia Minor, Syria, and N. Mesopotamia to the Tigris; Ægyptus and Cyprus; Phœnicia and Palestina.

LESSOW 184.—The Irruptions of the Barbarians.

- 478. THE IRRUPTIONS OF THE BARBARIANS into the various countries of the West occurred about the undermentioned dates:—
 - 1. The Huns settled in Hungary, A.D. 356.
- The Ostrogoths or Eastern Goths, in Moesia and North Italy,
 A.D. 377.
 - 3. The Visigoths, Western Goths, in Pannonia, A.D. 378.
- 4. The Franks (or freemen, a combination of North-Western German tribes), in Gaul, A.D. 407.
 - 5. The Vandals, a German tribe, in Africa, A.D. 407.
 - 6. The Sucvi, from central Germany, in Spain, A.D. 407.
 - 7. Burgundians, in Burgundy, A.D. 407.
 - 8. The Heruli, a German tribe, in Italy, A.D. 476.
 - 9. The Saxons, E. of the Elbe in Holstein, in Britain, A.D. 476.
- 10. The Longobardi, long-bearded men, living between the Elbe and Oder, in Italy, A.D. 526,

INDEX

to

HILEY'S COMPENDIUM OF EUROPEAN GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY, IN WHICE THE WORDS ARE DIVIDED AND ACCENTED ACCORDING TO THE MOST APPROVED SYSTEM.

The Index No. 1, applicable to Modern Geographical Names.

- 1. Observations.—In the following Index a vowel is accented and long when a small dash (-) is placed over it; as \$\vec{a}\$, \$\vec{e}\$, in falle, mē. A small curve (-) over a vowel denotes that it is unaccented and short; as \$\vec{a}\$, \$\vec{e}\$, in fall, mēt. A small angle (\(\vec{a}\)) placed over a vowel denotes the sound of \$\vec{a}\text{b}\$; as in faller. A small curve formed thus (\(\cap{a}\)) denotes the sound of aw; as in fall. When the Accent (') is on a consonant or syllable, the accentual mark is placed at the end of the syllable; as in Liet-ooln, Som!-erset.
- Abbreviations explained.—Ar. means area; Sq. m., square miles; ac., acres; bor., borough; can., canton; c., city; ca., cape; cap., capital; co., county or country; dep., department; dis., district; ho., house; mun. lim., municipal limits; ml., mountains; pen., peninsula; pop., population; prov., province; prom., a promontory; scap., a scaport; r., river; t., tn., town.
- The Numerals 1, 2, 3, 4, &c., placed after a word, refer to the Page in which the article is explained.
- In the pronunciation of Foreign Geographical Words, it may be observed—1st. That such as are of common occurrence in English works, are pronounced as English Words; as Cal-ais, Cal-is; Par-is, Par-is.

2nd. Words of difficult Pronunciation are also generally pronounced as English Words.
3rd. All other words generally follow the Rules given for pronunciation in Pages 1 and 2 of this work.

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No. 2.—Adapted to the Classical Geographical Names occurring in the Lessons on Italy, Turkey, Greece, and the Ancient World.

Note .-- The Numerals 1, 2, 3, 4, &c., placed after the Names refer to the pages in which the ancient names occur.

ART

Ab-us, Mt. Ar'arat, 262, in Asia; also Ab-us, the Humber, 261, E. of Yorkshire. A-car-na'-nia, now Carnia, 256, a prov. in Greece.

A-chā-I-ā, 254, a prov. in the Peloponnesus,

A-chæ-ans, 254, the anc. inhabs. of Achaia. Ach-è-lo'-us, 256, a riv. of Acarnania.

Ach'-e-ron, 256, a riv. in Epirus; there were several.

Ac-ro-ce-rau-ni-s, 256, a prom. in Epirus. Ac'-ti-um, now La Punta, a prom. in A carnania

Ad'-dŭ-a, 286, now Adda, a riv. in Cisalpine Gaul.

A'-dri-a, 286, now Adria, a tn. N E. of Italy. A-dri-at-Y-cum Ma-re, 261, the Adriatic

Æ-gæ-um Mä-re, 261, the Archipelago. Æ-gi-na, 260, Eghina, an isle nr. Attica in Greece.

Æ-gĭ-um, 256, a port of Achaia, Greece Æ-gyp'-tus, 263, Egypt, a country N.E. of

Æ-ö-lians, 254, one of the Grecian tribes. Æ-qui, 237, a tribe in Latium, in Italy. Æ-ser'-nïa, 236, now Isernia, a tn. in Latium.

Æ-thi-opia, 263, now Nubia and Abyssinia. Æt/-na, 261, now Etna, a mt. in Sicily. Æ-tō-lia, 256, a district in central Greece. Af-ri-ca, 259, a large continent S. of

Europe. - Propria, 263, the Roman prov. now Tunis.

Ag-ri-gen'-tum, 237, a city in Sicily.

Ag-ri-gen'-tum, 237, an anc. tn. in Latium.

Al-ba-nia, 248, a prov. in Turkey in

Europe; also 262, the S.E. part of

Georgia, W. of the Caspian Sea.

Al-bion, or white land, another name for Britain.

Al'-bis, 261, the Elbe, a riv. of Germany. Al-e-man'-ni, allmen, a confederacy of German tribes

Al-ex-an'-dria, the cap, of Egypt under the Ptolemies.

Al-löb-rö-ges, a powerful tribe in Gallia Transalpina

Al'-pes, 261, the Alps, mts. between Gaul and Italy. Al-phē-us, 256, a riv. of Peloponnesus.

ART

Am-brā/cīa, 256, a tn. of Epirus, in Greece. Am-phic-ty-on'-ic Council, 255, the great council of Greece.

Am-phip-ö-lis, 256, a tn. of Macedonia. Am-phis'-sa, a tn. of Locri Ozolse in Greece.

An-ac-to-ri-um, 256, a tn. in Acarnania. in Greece

An-of-na, 236, a tn. of Picenum, Italy. An-gii, a German tribe from whom the English are named.

An'-dros, 253, one of the Cyclades, Greece. An'-I-o, 236, a branch of the Tiber, nr. Rome

An-tic'-y-ra, 256, a tn. of Thessaly, Greece. Anx-a-num, 236, a tn. of the Frentani. Italy.

Ap-en-ni-nus Mons, 261, a range of mts. running down Italy.

A-pid-a-nus, 256, a riv. in Thessaly. A-pu-li-a, 237, now Puglia, a district S.K.

of Italy. Å-quil-ë-Y-ä, 235, a tn. of Transpadāna, N. Italy.

A-qui-tā-nī-a, now Guienne, Gascony, &c., in Gallia Transalpina.

A-ra-bi-a, 262, a country on S.W. of Asia; Deserta, the desert of Arabia and the adjacent parts; Pikz, the proper peninsula of Arabia; Pêtre-ā, the stony, on the N.W. and N.E. of Arabia.

A-rab-I-cus Sin-us, 262, the Red Sea

A-rach'-thus, 256, a riv. in Epirus. A'-rar, the Saone, a riv. in Gallia Transalpina.

A-rax'-es, 262, the Oxus or Jaxartes, a riv. in Armenia Ar-ca-di-a, 256, a central prov. of the

Peloponnēsus. Ar'-de-a, 237, a tn. of the Rutuli in Latium.

Ar'-ĕ-lā-tum, now Arles, in Gallia Narbonensis.

Ar-ĕ-op/-ă-gus, 255, a high tribunal in Athens, Greece.

Ar-gith'-ĕ-a, 256, a tn. in Epirus. Ar'-gŏ-lis, 256, a district of the Peloponnesus.

Ar-gos, 256, the cap. of Argolis.

A-ric'-i-a, 237, a tn. of Latium, Italy. A-rim-i-num, 286, now Rimini, a tn. in Umbria, Italy.

CEP Britan'-ni-a Secunda, 53, Wales and Mon-

Ar-mē-nī-a, 262, a country of Asia. Ar'-nus, 236, now Arno, a riv. of Etruria,

Italy.

Ar-pi, 237, a tn. of Apulia, Italy.

Ar-pi-num, 237, now Arpino, a tn. of
Latium, Italy, bpl. of Cloero and

As-cu-lum, 236, now Ascoli in Picenum,

Italy.
A'-si-a, 259, one of the three anc. divis. of the World.

Mi-nor, 261, now Anatolia, a large dist. between the Euxine, Ægæan and Mediterranean Seas.

As-syr'-i-a, 262, now Kurdistan, on the E. of the Tigris.

A-the-nee, 253, Athens, cap. of Attica, Greece. Ath-ĕ-sis, 235, now Adige, a riv. of N.

Italy. A'-thos mts., 246, a range in Macedonia.

At-las, 263, Atlas, a range in the N. of Africa.

At-lan-tl-cus Oce-a-nus, 261, the Atlantic Ocean.

At-ti-ca, 256, a prov. of Central Greece. Au-fi-dus, 237, a riv. of Apulia, Italy. Au-gus-ta Tau-ri-nō-rum, 286, now Turia. Au-ler'-ci, a tribe in Gaul. Au-run'-ci, 237, an anc. tribe in Italy,

Au'-son-es, a tribe in Latium, Italy. Au-son'-1-a, 235, another name for Italy A-ven'-I-o, now Avignon, a tn. in Gallia

Narbonensis. Ax'-I-us, 256, now Vardar, a riv. of Macedonia.

Ax'-5-na, now the Aisne, a riv. in Gallia Lugdunensis.

Bab'-y-lō-nĭ-ā, 262, now *Irak-Ar'-d-bi*, a large district in Asia. Bac'-tra, 216, now Balk, Bac'-trī-a, 262, Bokhāra. Bāe-tī-ca, 260, a prov. S. of Spain.

Bae-tis, 261, Guadalquiver, a riv. in Spain. Ba-i-ae, 287, a tn. of Campania, Italy. Bal-a-a-res, Majorca, Minorca, &c. Ba-ta-vi, now Holland.

Bel-gæ, 52, now Belgians.

Bel'-gi-ca, now Belgium.
Ben-è-ven'-tum, 236, now Benevento.
Be-ræ'-a, 256, now Verria, a tn. of Macedonia.

Bith-yn'-i-a, 262, a country in Asia Minor. Boe-6-tia, 256, a district of Greece.
Bon-6-ni-a, 236, Bologna, in Etruria.
Bor-ys'-the-nes, 261, the Dnieper.
Bos-po-rus, 281, the Strait of Constantino-

ple; also the Straits of Kaffa.

Bov-I-a-num, 236, a tn. in Samnium. Brīg-an'-tēs, 52, a Brit. tribe in Yorkshire. Brītan'-nī-a Romāna, 260, England, Wales, and S. of Scotland.

- Barbara, N. and cent. of Scotland. - Prima, 53, England S. of the Thames.

mouth. Bri-tan'-ni-cee Insules, 260, Great Britain and Ireland. Bri-tan'-ni-cum Ma-re, 261, part of the English Channel. Brix'-I-a, 236, now Brescia.

Brun-du-si-um, 237, now Brindusi. Brüt-ti-l, 237, a tribe in Calabria. Bur-gun'-dl-o-nës, a German tribe. By-zan'-ti-um, 247, now Constantinople. By-za-ci-um, a district S. of Africa Propria.

Cæ-sar-aŭ-gus'-ta, now Saragossa, a tn. in Spain.

Cā-jē'-ta, 237, now Gaeta, in Latium. Cā-jā-bri-a, 287, the peninsula S.E. of Italy.

Cal-ĕ-dō-nī-a, 53, the anc. name of the cent. and N. of Scotland.

Cal-lip'-o-lis, 287, now Gallipoli, a port in Calabria; a tn. of Sicily; another in Thrace.

Cal-pē, now Gibraltar, S. of Spain. Căl'-y-don, 256, a tn. of Ætolia. Cam-ă-lo-dū-num, now Colchester, cap. of the Trinobantes in Britain.

Cam-a-ri-na, 237, a tn. of Sicily. Cam-bū-ni mts., 256, bet. Macedonia and Thessaly.

Cam-pā/-nī-a, 287, now Campagna, S. of Latium.

Can'-nae, a vil. in Apulia, where Han-nibal def. the Romans. Can-tă-bri-um Mă-re, 261, Bay of Biscay. Can-ti-i, 52, the anc. inhabs. of Kent.

Can'-ti-um, 52, now Kent.

Can-ŭ-sī-um, 237, now Canosa, in Apulia. Cap-pă-dō-cī-a, 262, a district in Asia Minor.

Cap'-ŭ-š, now Capua, in Campania. Căr'-š-lis, 287, now Cagliari, in Sardinia. Cā-rī-a, 262, a district of Asia Minor. Car-pā-tēs mts, 261, the Carpathian mts. Car-pā-thus, I., 247, now Scarpanio. Car-thi-go, nr. mod. Tunis, a cel. city in Africa Propria. Cas-pi-um Mar-ë, 262, the Caspian Sea.

Cas-al-thr'-I-des Instilae, Tin Islands, the Scilly Isles, and pt. of Cornwall. Cat-S-na, 237, now Catanta, in Sicily. Can-ca-sus mts., 263, the Caucasus chain

in Asia.

Cau-di-um, 236, a tn. in Samnium, nr. which were the narrow passes called the " Caudine Forks."

Cel-ti'-bē-ri, a Celtic tribe on the Iberus. Cel'-tae, sev. kindred tribes settled in-Gaul, Britain, Spain, &c.

Cen'-chre-se, 258, the port of Corinth, Greece.

Cĕ-os, 256, now Zea, an isle in the Ceph-a-le-nī-a, 253, now Cephalonia.

CER

Ce-rau-ni-i mts., 256, now Khimara, mts. on the frontier of Illyricum. Che-ro-ne-a, a tn. in Bostia, cel. for def. of the Athenians by Philip of Macedon. Chal-cis, 253, now *Egripo*, in Eubœa. Chal-dæ-a, 262, a prov. of Babylonia. Châ'-ō-nēs, sev. tribes in Epirus. Cher-so-ne'-sus Cimbrica, 259, now Jutland. - Taurica, 261, now the Crimea. Thra-ci-ca, the Peninsula of the Dardanelles. Che-rus-ci, an anc. German tribe. Chr-os Ins, 247, now Scio. Ci-lic'-I-a, 262, pt. of Karamania in Asia Minor. Ci-thæ'-ron mts., 256, a range of mts. in Bœotia. Clū'-si-um, 236, now Chiusi, in Etruria. Cni'-dus, a tn. of Caria, in Asia Minor, where Venus was worshipped. Co-da-nus Sinus, 261, now the Kategat. Col'-chis, 262, now Mingrelia, in Asia. Con-stan-ti-nop-o-lis, now Constantinople. Cor-cy-ra, 258, now Corfu, one of the Ionian islands. Cor-in'-thus, 253, now Corinth, N. of the Morea Cor-I-ō-li, 237, a tn. in Latium. Cor-I-tā-ni, 52, an anc. tribe in Lincolnshire Cor-nā'-vi-i, an anc. peop. in Cheshire. Cor'-sī-ca, 287, now Corsica. Cos Ins., 247, now Stanco, one of the Sporades, Cre-mo-na, 236, now Cremona, a tn. in N. Italy. Cre'-ta Ins., 246, now Candia. Cret'-I-cum Măre, 261, the sea nr. Crete. Cris'-sa, 256, a tn. in Phocis, Greece. Crō-tô-na, 237, a city in Bruttium. Cū-mae, a tn. in Campania, the seat of the sibyl, Cu'-res, 236, a tn. of the Sabines. Cy'-cla-des, 253, a group of islands in the Ægean Sea. Cy-prus, 264, now Cyprus. Cy-re-na-1-ca, 263, now Barca. Cy-re-ne, the cap. of Cyrenaica. Cyth-nos, 253, now Thermia.

Då'-cĭ-a, 260, now Transylvania, Wallachia, Moldavia, and pt. of Hungary. Dam-non-Y-1, 52, anc. peop. of Cornwall, &c.

Cy-rps, 262, a riv. of Armenia. Cy-the-ra Ins., 253, now Cerigo.

Da-nüb-Y-us, 261, the Danube or Ister. Dat-ni-8, 237, the anc. name of the N. part of Apulia.
De-los, 256, the smallest of the Cyclades,

sacred to Apollo and Diana.

Del'-phi, 253, now Kastri, a tn. in Phocis, with a temp. of Apollo.

Del'-ta, 263, the N. part of Egypt, inclosed by the branches of the Nile. De-me-tri-as, 256, a tn. of Magnesia in

Thessaly. Di-vo-du-rum, now Metz, a tn. in Gallia

Belgica.

Do-bu'-ni, 52, anc. inhabs. of Oxfordshire.

Do-do-na, a cel. temp of Jupiter in **Epirus**

Do'-ris, 256, a small district in Greece. Do-ri-ans, one of the 4 clans in anc. Greece.

Drep'-a-num, 237, now Trapani in Sicily. Du-ri-us, 261, now Douro, a river in Spain. Du-rot/-ri-ges, 52, anc. peop. of Dorsei-

shire, &c. Dyr-rha'-chi-um, 247, now Durazzo in Illyricum.

Eb-la-na, now Dublin.

E-bor'-a-cum, now York, the cap. of the Brigantes in Britain.

E-leu'-sis, 256, now Lepsing, a tn. in Attica.

E'-lis, 256, a district on the W. of the Peloponnesus.

E-mo-di mts., 262, the Himalayah mts. in Agia.

En-i-pēūs, 256, a river in Thessaly. E-pl-rus, 255, now Albania, in N.W. of Greece.

E-re-tri-a, 257, one of the chief towns in Eubœa.

Er-y-man'-thus, 256, a mt. in Arcadia.

Er-y-thræ-um Mär-e, 262, the Red Sea. E-trü-ri-ä, 286, now Tuscany, a country in cent. Italy.

Eu-bœ-a, Îns., 253, Negropont, a large isle.

Eu-pa-to-ri-um, now Inkerman, a tn. in the Crimea.

Eu-phrā-tēs, 262, a river in Asia.

Eu-ro-pa, 259, one of the three divisions of the and, world.

Eu-rō-tas, 253, a river in Laconia on which Sparta stood.

Eux-I'nus Pon-tus, 261, the Black Seq.

Fäë-su-lae, 236, Fiesole, a city of Etruria. Păl-e-rī-i, 236, Falleri, a tn. in Etruria. Fa-ven'-ti-a, 236, a tn. in GalliaCispadana. Fir'-mum, 236, a tn. in Pioenum.

Fi-de-nae, a tn. of the Sabines, Italy. Fla-vi-a Ca-sar-i-en-sis, 53, the district bet. the Thames and Humber in Roman Britain.

Flo-ren'-ti-a, 236, Florence, a tn. in **Etruria**

For-tu-na/-tae In-su-lae, 263, the Canary and Madeira islands.

Fo'-rum Ap'-pl-i, a tn. in Latium, 43 m. from Rome.

Fran'-ci, i.e., Freemen, a confederacy of German tribes. Fren-tā-ni, 236, a tribe of Samnites.

Fris'-i-i, 259, a people of Germany on the Amisis or Ems.

Gā-dēs, Cadis, an anc. tn. in Spain. Gad-i-tā-num Fretum, 261, Straits of Gibraltar.

Gae-tū-li, 263, a people of Mauretania. Gal-a'-ti-a, 262, a district of Asia Minor. Gal'-li-ă, Gaul.

Gallia Trans-al-pi-na or Ulterior, 286, included France, Belgium, and S. Holland. Gallia Cis-al-pi-na or Citerior, 236, the N.

of Italy and S. of the Alps. Trans-pa-dā-na, 236, Gaul in Italy, N. of the Po.

Cis-pa-dā-na, 286, Gaul, S. of the Po. - Gal'-li-cum Fretum, 261, Strasts of Dover. Gan'-ges, 262, Ganges, a riv. in India. Gan-get-Y-cus Sinus, 262, the Bay of

Bengal. Gar-ă-man'-tes, 263, the most southerly peop. in N. Africa.

Ga-rum'-na, 261, Garonne, a riv. in Gaul. Gaûlös, 237, now Gozo.

Ge-dro-si-a, 262, a prov. of the Persian Empire.

Ge-nē-va, now Geneva, a tan. of the Allobroges.

Gen'-ŭ-a, 286, Genoa, a tn. of Liguria. Ger-ma-n'-i-cum Măr-ĕ, 261, the German

Ocean.

Gē'-taē, a warlike peop. in Lower Dacia. Goth-i, a combination of several tribes, originally from Asia. Such of them as settled in the Western parts of Europe were called Vist-Goths or Western Goths. Those who settled in the Eastern parts were called Ostro-Goths or Eastern Alaric, king of the Visi-Goths, Goths. thrice attacked and sacked Rome itself. The third and last time was on Aug. 24, A.D. 410, when the city was delivered to the licentious fury of the barbarous tribes of Germany and Scythia.

Greecia or Hel-las, 260, a country S.E. of Europe.

Greecia Magna, 237, the name of the Southern pt. of Italy, so named because sev. Greek colonies had settled there. Gra-ni-cus, a river of Mysia.

Gy-a-ros, now Jura, one of the Cyclades.

Hamus mts., 261, Balkan range of mts. bet. Thrace and Moesia.

Hal-I-ac'-mon, 256, Vistrisa, a riv. in Macedonia.

Hal-I-car-nas'-sus, now Budrum, a city of Caria, in Asia Minor. Ha-ru'-des, a German tribe in the N.W.

Hel-Y-con mts., 253, a range of mts. in

Hel-le-nes, another name for the Greeks. Hel-las, 253, another name for Greece. Hel-les-pon'-tus, 261, Straits of the Dards-

nelles.

Hel-ots, 254, Spartan slaves. Hel-vē-tī-i, a large tribe on the W. of what

is now modern Switzerland. Hep-tan'-ŏ-mis, 263, a district of Egypt.

Her-a-cle-a, a tn. in Thrace; another in

Sicily.

Her-cu-lā-nē-um, 237, a city in Campania, destroyed by an earthquake.

Her-ni-di, 287, a peop. in Latium. Hes-pë-ri-a, 235, the west, a name given by the Greeks to Italy.

Hi-ber'-nY-a, Ireland.

His-pa'-ni-a, 259, Spain. Hy-das-pes, 262, Jelum, a branch of the

Indus. Hy-drun'-tum, 237, Otranto, a tn. of Cala-

Hy-met/-tus, 256, a mt, in Attica, cel. for its honey. Hỹ-pă-nis, 262, the Bog, a riv. in S.

Russia.

Hy-dre-a, 253, now Hydra, one of the Sporades.

Huns, 264, a tribe of Turkish or Tartar descent, originally occupying the district N. of the great Chinese Wall which had been erected to check their incursions. About 200 B. C., having broken through the wall, they gradually ex-tended their conquests westwards. Under Attila, their king, called "the scourge of God," they committed, about 445 A.D., dreadful ravages both in the West of Asia and the East of Europe.

I-ā-pyg'-Y-a, 237, the Greek name for the S. of Apulla.

I-be-ri-a, 262, Spain; also a name for Georgia, a country of Asia.
L-be-rus, 261, the Ebro, a riv. of Spain.
I-ca'-ri-a, 247, one of the Sporades.

I-ce-ni, 52, the anc. inhabs, of Norfolk, &c. Il-lyr'-Y-cum or Il-lyr'-Y-a, 260, Croatia,

Dalmatia, Bosnia, &c. I-mā-us mts., 262, a range of mts. in Asia.

Im-brus, 247, an isle nr. Thrace. In'-d's, 262, now Hindostan. In-dus, 262, the Indus, a riv. N.W. of

India.

In-dI-cus O-ce-a-nus, 262, the Indian Ocean. In-ter'-num Mar-e, 261, the Mediterranean Sea.

I-ō-nians, one of the 4 tribes of Greece. I-ō-nī-um Mar-e, 261, the sea bet. Italy and Greece

I-ō-nī-an islands, 261, islands in the Ionian Sea

Is-ca, the Usk, a riv. in Monmouthshire.

Is-ca Sil-ti-rum, Caerleon, a tn. in Monmouth.

Isth-mi-an Games, 255, were cel. at the Isthmus of Corinth, in the 1st and 3rd of each Olympiad.

Is'-tri-a, 285, a peninsula N. of the Adriatic.

I-tal-I-a, 260, Italy. Ith'-a-ca, 257, Theaki, a small isle off Epirus.

Jax-ar'-tes, 262, Syr or Syhoun, a riv. flowing into Lake Aral. Ja-nic'-u-lum, a hill of Rome, N. of the Tiber. Jü'-ra mts., a range in the E. of Gaul.

La-ce-dee-mon or Sparta, 256, cap. of Laconia in the Peloponnesus. La-cō-nī-a, 256, a district in the Peloponněsus,

La-od-I-cē-a, 262, a tn. of Phrygia in Asia Minor.

La-ris'-sa, 256, a tn. in Thessaly. La-rī-us, lake, 261, now Como, Italy. Lā-tī-ni, 237, the peop. of Latium, of whom the Romans were a branch.

La-ti-um, 287, a country on the W. of Italy. Le-man'-nus, lake, 261, now Lake of

Geneva. Lem'-nos Ins., 247, now Stalimene, an isle in the Ægean Sea.

Le-on-tī-ni, now Lentini, a tn. in Sicily. Les'-bos Ins., 247, Mitylene, an island off Mycia.

Leu-ca-di-a Ins., 253, Santa Maura. Le-thæ'-us, 256, a riv. in Thessaly. Le-the, a riv. in the Lower world. Leuc'-tra, a tn. of Bœotia, where Epaminondas def. the Spartans, B.C. 371. Lib'-y-a, 263, the Greek name for Africa.

Li-ger, 261, the Loire. Li-gu'-ri-a, 236, now Genoa, Nice, &c. Lil'-y-bæ-um, 237, Marsala, a tn. in

Sicily. Lipareæ Insulæ, 260, the Lipari Isles. Li-ris, 287, Garigliano, a riv. in Italy, Lo-cris, 256, two districts in Central Greece.

Lon-di-ni-um, now London, cap. of the Cantii.

Lon-go-bar'-di, Lombards, long bearded, a German tribe settled in N. Italy. Lu-ca, 236, *Lucca*, a tn. in Etruria. Lu-cā-n\(\frac{1}{2}\)-a, 237, a district of Lower Italy. Lug-du-num, now Lyons, cap. of Gallia

Lugdunensis. Lu-si-tā-nī-a, 216, Portugal. Lü-te-ti-a, cap. of the Parisii, now Paris. Lỹ-că-ö-nǐ-a, 262, a dist. of Asia Minor. Lỹc-ĭ-a, 262, a small country of Asia

Minor.

Lyd'-Y-a, 262, a country of Asia Minor. Lys'-tra, a city of Lycaonia, Asia Minor.

Mac-ë-dō-nī-a, 255, a country N. of Greece. Ma-dl-an or Mid'-l-an, 262, a district of Arabia Petres.

Mæ-nă-lus, 256, a mt. in Arcadia Mæ-on'-I-a, another name for Lydia. Homer was a native of Mæonia.

Mee-o-tis Pal-us, 261, the Sea of Azof. Mag'-nus Sin-us, 262, Gulf of Siams. Ma-jor'-ca, an isle in the Mediterranean. Man-ti-ne-a, 253, now Tripolizza, a tn. in

Arcadia. Man'-tu-a, 236, Mantua, a tn. in N. of Italy, near which Virgil was born.

Mar'-a-thon, a vil. of Attica, fam. for the battle bet, the Persians and Athenians,

Sept. 28, B.C. 490. Mar-mar'-1-ca, 263, a country of N. Africa. Marsi, 236, a peop. in the cent. of Italy. Mar-ru-ceni, 236, a peop. nr. the Samnites.

Mas-sil-1-a, now Marseilles, a tn. in Gallia Narbonensis. Mau-re-tā'-nīa, 263, a country in N. Africa.

- Cee-sar-Y-en'-sis, 263, the E. pt. of the same

- Tin-gi-ta-na, 263, the W. pt. of the

Maxima Cse-sar-Y-en'-sis, 53, the dist. in Britain bet. the Humber and the Tyne. Mē-di-a, 262, a country of Asia. Me-dĭ-ŏ-lā-num, 236, Milan, a tn. in Gallia

Transpadana

Meg-a-lop'-ŏ-lis, 256, a tn. in Arcadia. Meg'-ă-ra, 256, cap. of Meg'ăris, a dist. in Greece.

Mel-i-bœ-ă, 256, a tn. of Thessaly. Mel-I-ta, 237, Malta, an island in the Mediterranean.

Mē-los, 253, Milo, one of the Sporades. Men-ap'-1-1, 82, a peop. of Gallia Belgica. Mer-ö-ē, 263, a dist. and cap. in Æthiopia. Mes-o-po-tā-mī-a, 262, a country Tigris and Euphrates.

Mes-sā-na, 287, Messina, a tn. of Sicily. Mes-sa-pi-a, 237, another name for Calahria.

Mes-sē-ne, 256, Mavromati, cap. of Messenia.

Mes-se'-n'i-a, 256, a dist. of the Pelopon-

Met-a-pon'-tum, 237, a tn. of Lucania. Me-tàu-rus, 236, Metro, a riv. of Umbria. Meth-ō'-nē, 256, Modon, a tn. of Messenia. Min'-c'-us, 236. Mincio, a riv. in Italy. Mit-y-le-ne, cap. of Lesbos, now the name of the island.

Mœ-8ĭ-ā, 260, now Servia, Bulgaria. Molos'-sis, 256, a dist. of Epirus. Mō-na Ins., Anglesey in N. Wales. Mon-ā-pl-a, prob. the Isle of Man. Mu'-tl-na, 236, Mō-dena, a tn', of Gallia Cispadana.

My-ce-nse, 256, a city of Argolis.

MYC

My-co-nos, 253, Mykoni, one of the Cyclades.

Myr-mid-ö-nes, a peop. of Thessaly. Myr-tō-um Mar-ĕ, 261, a part of the Ægean Sea.

Mys'-Y-a, 262, a country of Asia Minor.

Na-is'-sus, 264, Nissa, a tn. of Dardania in Moesia.

Nar, 286, Nera, a riv. of Umbria Narbo, now Narbonne, cap. of Gallia Narbonensis

Nau-pac'-tus, 253, Lepanto, a tn. of Locri Ozolae, Greece.

Nau-pli-a, 256, Napoli, the harbour of Argos. Nax'os Ins., 253, Naxia, one of the

Cyclades Ne-ap'-5-lis, now Naples, a city in Cam-

pania. 256, a tn. in Macedonia.

Nemea, 255, a tn. in Argolis at which the Nemean Games were celebrated.

Nervii, a peop. in Gallia Belgica

Ni-cse-a, now Isnit, cap. of Bithynia, fam. for an ecclesiastical council held there, A.D. 325, in which the Nicene Creed was drawn up.

Nicæa, 236, a tn. of Liguria, Italy, now

Ni-cop'-5-lis, 256, a tn. of Epirus.

Nilus, 236, the river Nile. No-la, 237, a tn. of Campania. [markt. No-re-1-a, cap. of Noricum, now Neu-Noricum, 260, Styria, Carinthia. &c.

Nov-I-o-du-num, now Isaczi, in Moesia Nu-man'-ti-a, a city in Hispania Tarra-conensis on the N.

Numid'ia, 263, now Algeria.

O-ax'-es, a riv. of Crete.

O-des'-sus, 247, Varna, a port of Moesia. Œ-no-tri-a, a name for Italy.

O-le-a-rus, 253, one of the Cyclades. Ol-I-si-po, now Lisbon.

Ol-li-us, 236, the Oglio, a riv. of N. Italy. O-lym'-pi-a, 253, a tn. and plain of Elis in Peloponnesus, where the Olympic games were cel. every 4th year.

O-lym'-pus mt., 247, a range of mts. in

Thessaly.
Or'-a-cles, 255, were responses given to questions respecting future events. Op'-us, 256, a tn. of Locris in Greece.

Or-chom'-ĕ-nus, 256, a city of Bœ-ō-tia. Or-dov'-ī-cēs, 52, the anc. peop. of N. Wales.

Or-tō-na, 236, a tn. in Latium. Os-tra-cism, 256, a vote for 10 years' Os-tra-cism,

banishment. Os sa, 247, a mt. in Thessaly. Os'-tia, 237, a tn. at the mouth of the Tiber.

Or-tyg-I-a, a name for Delos. Ox-us, 262, Jihon, a river of Asia. POT

Pa-dus, 261, the Po, the chief riv. of Italy. Pam-phyl-I-a, 262, a country of Asia

Minor.

Pan-no-ni-a, 260, S.W. part of Hungary

with Statonia. &c.
Păn-or'-mus, 287, Palermo, in Sicily.
Paph-lĕ-gō-nĭ-a, 262, a country of Asia

Minor.

Pä-phos, a tn. of Cyprus where Venus was worshipped. Par-ma, 236, Parma, a tn. of Gallia Cispa-

dana. Par-nas'-sus, 253, a cel. mt. of Phocis nr.

Delphi. Pä-ros Ins., 253, Paros, one of the Cyclades,

cel, for its marble. Par'-thi-a, 262, now Khorassan, a country

of Asia. Pa-ta'-vi-um, 285, Padus, a tn. of Italy.

Pat'-mos Ins., 247, one of the Sporades, cel. for the exile of St. John. Patrae, 253, now Patras, a scaport of the

Moréa. Pe-las-gi, 254, the anc. inhabs. of S. Thessaly.

Pē-li-on, 257, a mt. of Thessaly. Pel'-la, 256, cap. of Macedonia. Pel-le-ne, 256, a tn. of Achaia. Pel-o-pon-në-sus, 253, now the Morea. Pen-ë-us, 256, a riv. of Thessaly. Per-si-cus Sinus, 262, the Persian Gulf.

Per'-sis or Persia, 262, a large country in Agia Pĕ-rū'-sī-a, 236, Perugia, a tn. in Etruria.

Pe-te-li-a, 287, Strongoli, a tn. of the Bruttii.

Phar-sa'-lus, 247, a tn. in Thessaly; nr. this Cæsar def. Pompey, B.C. 48. Pher-se, 256, a tn. of Thessaly. Phi-lip'-pi, 247. a tn. of Macedonia Phi-lip-pop'-5-lis, 247, a tn. of Thrace.

Phō-cis, 256, a dist. in Greece. Phœ-nice, 256, a tn. of Epirus. Phry-gi-a, 262, a country of Asia Minor.

Pi-ce-num, 235, a dist. S. of Umbria. Pi-er-I-a, a dist. of Macedonia, a seat of the worship of the Muses.

Pin'-dus, 256, a chain of mts. in Macedonia.

Pi-ræ-us, 258, chief harbour of Athens. Pi'-sæ, 236, Pisa, a tn. of Etruria. Pi-sid-Y-a, 262, a country of Asia Minor. Pla-cen'-tY-a, 236, *Placenza*, a city in

Italy. Pla-tæ-5, 253, a city of Bœotia, where the Greeks def. the Persians, Sept. 22,

B.C. 479. Poe-ni, another name for the Cartha-

ginians. Pom-pē-ī-i, 237, a tn. of Campania over-whelmed in A.D. 79.

Pon'-tus, 262, a country of Asia Minor. Pon-tus Eux-I-nus, the Black Sea. Pot-Y-dse-a, 256, a tn. of Macedonia.

PRA

Pre-neg-te, 287, Palestrina, a tn.in Latium. Pro-pon'-tis, 261, the Sea of Marmors. Pu-të-ë-li, 287, Possuoli, a port of Campanis.

Pyd'-na, 256, Kitron, a tn. of Macedonia. Py'-lus, 258, a tn. in Elis.

Pyr.5-ne-I mts., 261, a range of mts. bet. France and Spain. Pyth-5-an Games, 255, games cel. every

Afth year in honour of Apollo, near Delphi.

Qui-ri-tes, another name for the Romans.

Ra-ven'-na, 236, now Ravenna, a cel. tn. in the E. of Italy, freq. the res. of the Roman Emperors.

Re-a'-te, 286, now Rick, a tn. of the Sabines Rē-mi or Rhē-mi, a peop. in Gallia Belgica,

cap. Rheims. Rha, 251, the Volga. Rhæ-ti-a, 260, now the Grisons, &c.

Rhē-gī-um, 287, Reggio, a tn. of Bruttium. Rhē-nus, 253, the Rhine.

Rhod'-a-nus, 261, the Rhone. Rho'-dus Ins., 247, Rhodes, an isle in the Ægean Sea

Ro-ma, 287, Rome, the cap. of Italy, and formerly of the world.

Rti'-bi-co, 286, a small riv. of Italy, a little N. of Ariminum, the boundary between Gallia Cispadana and Umbria.

Rŭ'-tŭ-li, a peop. of Latium.

Să-ba or Sheba, cap. of the Sa-bes-i in Arabia Felix. Sa-bi'-ni, 286, an anc. peop. in cent. of

Italy.

Sa-bri-na, 261, the Severn

Sa'-cer Mons, the Sacred Mt., 8 miles from Rome.

Sagun'-tum, now Murviedro, a tn. of Spain.

Sā'-is, 260, a city in the Dalta, Egypt. Sal'-ā-mis, 253, now *Koturi*, an isle W. of

Attica, where the Greeks def. the fleet of Xerxes, B.C. 480.

Sa-ler'-num, 237, now Salerno, cap. of the Picentini, Italy.

Să'-me, the anc. name of Cephallenia Să-mos Ins., 247, an iale opposite to Ephësus.

Sam'-ni-um, 286, a country of Italy. Sam-o-thre'-ci-a, 247, now Samothrakt, an isle in the Ægean Sea

Sar-a-cë-ni, a peop. of Arabia Petrea. Sar-din'-1-a, 287, now Sardinia.

Sar-ma'-ti-a Asi-at-i-ca, 262, the W. of Russia in Asia.

Sar-mat-1-cum Mar-e, 251, the Baltic. Sa-tur'-nY-a, 285, an anc. name of Italy. Sax'-5-nes, a peop. in Germany S. of Cher-sonësus Cimbrica. Scal'-dis, the Scheldt, a riv. in Gallia Bel-

gĭca. Scan-di-na-vi-a, 259, now Norway and

Sweden. Sci'-E-thus, 256, now Skiatho, an isle in the

Sco-ti, 58, a tribe of the anc. Caledonians. Scyl'-la and Chă-ryb'-dis, two rocks bet. Sicily and Italy.

Scy'-ros, 253, now Scyro, an isle in the Agean.

Scyth'-Y-a, 262, the N.E. of Europe.

Se-qua-na, 261, the riv. Seine. Ser-I-ca, 262, the N.W. part of China.

Se-rī'-phos, 258, now Serpho, one of the Cyclades.

Scy-la-cium, 237, now Squillace in Bruttium.

SI-cam-bri, an anc. tribe of Germany.

Si-cil'-I-a, 237, now Sicily. Sic-y-on, 251, a town and small district in Peloponnesus.

Sil'-u-rès, 52, an anc. peop. of S. Wales. Si'-nae, the S. part of China. Sog-di-a-na, 262, parts of Turkesian and

Bokhāra.

So-rac'-te, a mt. in Etruria.

Spar'-ta or La-ce-dae-mon, 256, cap. of Laconia in Peloponnesus. Spo-lê-ti-um, 236, Spoleto, a tn. in

Umbria.

Spor'-ă-des, 258, a group of scattered islands in the Ægean Sea.

Sta-gi-ra, now Starro, a tn. of Macedonia, the bal of Aristotle. Stry-mon, 256, now Strame, a riv. of

Macedonia. Styx, 1, a riv. in Arcadia; 2. a riv. in the infernal regions

Suëvi, a tribe in Germany, now Suabia. Sues-si-ō-nes, now Soissens, a peop. in Gallia Belgica

Sur-ren'-tum, 237, now Sorrento, a tn. in

Campania. Su-si-ā-nā, 262, now Khusistan. Syb'-ā-ris, 287, a tn. and riv. in Lucania-

Sýr-a-cu-sae, 287, now Syracuse, a city in Sicily.

Syr'.-i.a, 262, a large country in Asia. Syr'-ros, 254, now Syra, one of the Cyclades. Syr'-tis Major, 263, now Gulf of Sidra. - Minor, 263, now Gulf of Cabes.

Tæ-nä-rus, 253, now Cape Matopon. Tä-gus, 261, a river in Spain. Tam'-ë-sis, 261, the river Thames. Tän'-ë-is, 261, the river Don.

Ta-prob'-a-ne, 262, Ceylon. Ta-ren'-tum, 287, now Taranto, in Calabria.

Tar-ra-ci-na, 287, now Terracina, a tn. in Latinm.

TAR

Tar-ra-co-nen-sis, 260, one of the three proys. in Spain.

Tar-sus, now Tersus, cap. of Cilicia, bpl. of St. Paul.

Taurus mts., 264, a chain of mts. in Asia. Ta-yg-e-tus, 256, a range of mts. bet. Laconia and Messenia

Tem'-pē, 247, a cel. val. in N. of Thessaly. Ten'-ō-dos, 247, a small isle in the Ægean Sea.

Ter-ges'-tĕ, 285, now Trieste, a tn. of

Teu'-ori-a, or the Troad, in N.W. of Asia Minor.

Teu'-to-nes, a large tribe in N. of Germany. Tha'-sos, 247, now Thaso, an isle in the Ægean.

The-bee, 256, cap. of Bosotia; and cap. of the Thebdis in Upper Egypt. another,

Ther-mop'-y-læ, 254, a cel. pass. between Thessaly and Locris, in which Leonidas with 300 Spartans resisted for 8 days the army of Xerxes, B.C. 480.

Thes-sa-li-a, 247, a district in Northern

Greece.

Thra-cl-a, 247, now pt. of Roumelia Thu-le, either Iceland or the Shetland Isles

Thū'-ri-i, 237, a city in Lucania, Italy. TTb'-e-ris, 261, the river Tiber in Italy. Ti'-bur, 237, now Tivoli, an anc. tn. of

Latium. Ti-cī-num, 236, Pavia, a tn. in N. Italy. Ti-cī-nus, 236, the riv. Tessino, a branch

of the Po. Ti-fer'-nus, 237, Biferno, a river of

Samnium. Ti-gris, 262, the Tigris, a great river W. of

Agia. Tingitāna, 264, a district of Mauretania. To-lē-tum, now Tolēdo, a tn. in Hispania

Tarraconensis. To-lo'-sa, now Toulouse, a tn. of Gallia

Narbonensis. Trap'-5-sus, now Trebisond, the cap. of Pontus in Asia Minor.

Tras-I-mē-nus, 236, the lake of Perugia in Etruria.

Tre-vi-ri, a large tribe in Gallia Belgica. cap. Treves. Tri-den'-tum, Trent, cap. of the Tridentini

in Rhaetia. Tri-na/-cri-a, a name of Sicily from its

triangular shape. Trin'-o-ban'-tes, 52, the anc. inhabs. of

Essex, &c. Tri-pol-I-tā-na, a dist. of N. Africa.

Tro'-ja of I-n-um, Troy, cap. of Tross in N. W. Mysia.

Tū-nes or Tunis, Tunis, a city of N. Africa, 10 miles from Carthage.

ZAM

Tus'-ci, the peop. of Etruria, now Tuscany. Tus'-cü-lum, 287, Frascati, a tn. of Latium, nr. which Cicero had a villa.

Ty. ras, 261, the river Dnlester. Tyr-he'-num Mar-ë, part of the Mediter-ranean, opp. to Etruria.

U'-bi-i, a German tribe on the Rhine.

Um'-bria, 236, a country of Italy. Ur, a dist. in Chaldea, placed by some

near Edessa; by others in the S. of Euphrates. U'-ti-ca, a cel. city of N. Africa, where

the younger Cato killed himself. Uz, the land of Job, 262, either in Idumsea

or N. of Arabia.

Vad-I-mō-nis, lake, Bassano, 236, a small lake of Etruria

Va'-ha-lis, the Waal, a branch of the Rhine.

Van'-dă-li, a confederacy of German tribes

Vec'-tis Ins., Isle of Wight. Ve-dra, the Wear in Durham. Ve'-i-i, 236, Isola Farnese, a city of Etruria.

Ven'-ĕ-ti, the inhabs. of Venetia, N.E. of Italy.

Ven'-ta Bel-ga-rum, Winchester.

 I-cē-nō-rum, Caistor, nr. Norwich. Sil-ŭ-rum, Caerwent, in Monmouth. Ve-rō-na, 235, Verona, a tn. in N. of Italy. Ve-sū'-vi-us, 237, a volcanic mt. in Cam-

pania. Vi-a-dus, the Oder, a riv. in Germany.

Vi-en'-na, Vienne, cap. of the Allobroges in Gallia Lugdunensis. Vin-de-li'-cl-a, 260, now N.E. of Switzerland.

Vin-do-bō-na, now Vienna, cap. of Austria.

Vis'-tŭ-la, 261, the Vistula.

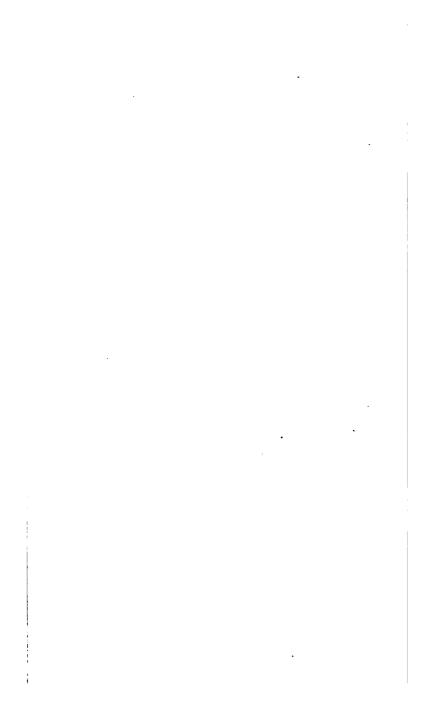
Vo'-ge-sus, the Vosges mts. in Gaul. Vol'-sci, 237, an anc. peop. in Latium.

Vul-tūr'-nus, 237, the Vollurno, a riv. in Campania.

Xan'-thus, 1, a riv. of the Troad; 2, a city of Lycia.

Za-cyn'-thus, 254, Zante, an isle in the Ionian Sea.

Zā-ma, a city of Numidia where Hannibal was def. by Scipio, B.C. 202.



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